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ABSTRACT

This conference proceedings includes the text of 15 of the 27 presentations made at the third annual Conference on Undergraduate Teaching of Psychology. In addition to a conference program, the proceedings includes the following papers: (1) "Multiethnic, Crosscultural Illustrations for Psychology Courses," by Judith Gray; (2) "A Computerized Information Test," by I. Michael Cyrulnik; (3) "Teaching the Underprepared Student at the College Level," by Stanley C. Feist; (4) "Teaching and Advising the Reluctant Psychology Major," by Linda L. Dunlap; (5) "Group Supervision of Novice Psychology Instructors: Application of Psychodynamic Principles to the Group as Well as the Classroom," by Irene Gillman Bruschi; (6) "The Shame of Not Knowing," by Carl Goldberg; (7) "Teaching Psycholcgy of Women to Inner-City College Students," by Linda Anderson-Barboza; (8) "A Videotaped Simulation of Ethical Issues as a Tool in Teaching Research Ethics to Psychology Undergraduates," by John B. Morganti; (9) "Using Tests to Teach Validity and Reliability Concepts to Non-Psychology Majors," by Frank M. Bernt; (10) "Getting Undergraduates Involved in Psychological Research," by Kathleen E. Harring and Laura Snodgrass; (11) "Mama Rat and Her Pups: An Observational Project for Courses in General Psychology," by Bernard Mausner; (12) "Classroom Exercises and Activities for a Course in Human Sexuality," by Gregory J. Smith; (13) "The Means and Ends of Raising Children: Parent Interview Activity," by Frank M. Bernt; (14) "The Special Friends Program: A Developmental Psychology Practicum," by Gregory J. Smith; and (15) "An Introductory Psychology Laboratory Designed and Taught by Undergraduate Teaching Interns," by Thomas Creed, Victoria Littlefield, and Michael Livingston. (JMC)

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Teaching of Psychology: Ideas and Innovations

Proceedings of the Third Annual Conference

March 9-11, 1989

Judith R. Levine and Stanley C. Feist, Editors

JC 890 559

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INTRODUCTION

The Third Annual Conference on Undergraduate Teaching of Psychology met on March 9-11,1989 on the campus of the Philadelphia College of Pharmacy and Science. The conference was sponsored jointly by the psychology departments of the State University of New York College of Technology at Farmingdale and the Philadelphia College of Pharmacy and Science.

The approximately 70 conference participants had 27 different presentations to choose from, including a keynote address by Dr. Wilbert J. McKeachie. Fourteen of the presentations are included in these conference proceedings.

Many individuals were responsible for the success of the conference. We would like to thank the following people for their efforts on behalf of the conference: Dr. Cathleen T. Moore and Dr. Barbara A. Bremer of the Psychology Department of the Philadelphia College of Pharmacy and Science for handling the local arrangements; Ms. MaryBeth Sclafani of SUNY Farmingdale Continuing Education Department for providing administrative support and overseeing the entire process; Ms. Barbara Sarringer of the Psychology Department at SUNY Farmingdale for providing invaluable secretarial assistance; and all those who served on the Subcommittee on Paper Selection.

Judith R. Levine, Ph.D.
Stanley C. Feist, Ph.D.

CONFERENCE PROGRAM

for

THE 3RD ANNUAL CONFERENCE ON UNDERGRADUATE

TEACHING of PSYCHOLOGY: IDEAS & INNOVATIONS

PRESENTED BY

THE PSYCHOLOGY DEPARTMENTS

of

SUNY COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY AT
FARMINGDALE

and the

PHILADELPHIA COLLEGE
of
PHARMACY and SCIENCE

on

THURSDAY EVENING, MARCH 9,

FRIDAY & SATURDAY, MARCH 10 & 11, 1989

in cooperation with the

SUNY FARMINGDALE DEPARTMENT OF CONTINUING EDUCATION

THURSDAY EVENING, MARCH 9, 1988

6:00 PM **REGISTRATION ON THE CAMPUS**
Wine & Cheese Reception
INFORMAL CONVERSATION WITH DR. McKEACHIE

7:30 P.M. **DINNER** - catered

FRIDAY, MARCH 10

8:45 am **REGISTRATION ON THE CAMPUS**
Continental breakfast
Textbook displays

9:30 am **WELCOME**
DR. CHARLES GIBLEY, DEAN, ARTS & SCIENCE

KEYNOTE ADDRESS:
GETTING STUDENTS TO THINK
DR. WILBERT J. MCKEACHIE
Professor of Psychology
Teacher of Teachers
Researcher on Teaching
Associate Director of NCRIPTAL

10:45 am **COFFEE BREAK**

11:15 am to 1:15 pm **PRESENTATIONS**

ROOM #1 PRESIDER: Lisa Whitten, SUNY Old Westbury, NY

11:15 am Integrating the Psychology of Women Into the Undergraduate Curriculum. Kathleen Crowley-Long, College of St. Rose, NY.

11:55 am Teaching Psychology of Women to Non-traditional College Students. Linda Anderson, Hostos Community College, NY.

12:35 pm Multiethnic, Crosscultural Illustrations for Psychology. Judith Gray, Chestnut Hill College, PA.

ROOM #2 PRESIDER: Mark E. Mattson, Clarkson University, NY
11:15 am A Computerized Information Test: Human Sexuality Applications. I. Michael Cyrulnik,
SUNY College of Technology at Farmingdale, NY.

11:55 am Teaching the Underprepared College Student.
Stanley C. Feist, SUNY College of Technology at Farmingdale, NY

Room #3 PRESIDER: Johnston Beach, U.S. Military Academy, NY
11:15 am Workshop: Teaching General Psychology Students to Think: A Way to Increase Student Involvement.
James Bell, Howard Community College, MD.

1:15 pm **CATERED LUNCH**

2:30- 5:00 pm **PRESENTATIONS**

Room #1 PRESIDER: Holly Pennock, Hudson Valley C.C., NY
2:30 pm Assessing the Validity of True-False Tests,
Wm. R. Balch, Penn State University, Altoona Campus, PA.

3:05 pm The Introductory Psychology Textbook.
Lester M. Sdorow, Allentown College, PA

3:40 pm Teaching and Advising the Reluctant Psychology Major.
Linda L. Dunlap, Marist College, NY.

4:10 pm Group Supervision of Novice Psychology Instructors: Application of Psychodynamic Principles to the Group as well as to the Classroom. Irene Gillman Bruschi, Hofstra University, NY.

Room #2 PRESIDER: Paul Bedell, SUNY Col. of Technology, Farmingdale
2:30 pm Workshop: The Complete Computerized Psychology Laboratory: Design and Implementation.
Margaret Anderson and Peter Hornby, SUNY Plattsburgh, NY.

Room #3 PRESIDER: Barbara Bremer, Phila Coll of Pharmacy & Science, PA
2:30 pm Workshop: The Shame of Not Knowing
Carl Goldberg, Albert Einstein College of Medicine, NY.

5:00 **SOCIAL HOUR** - relax ,enjoy and share

6:00 **CATERED DINNER**

SATURDAY, MARCH 11

8:45 am **REGISTRATION ON THE CAMPUS**
Continental breakfast, Textbook displays

9:30- 12:00 am **PRESENTATIONS**

ROOM #1 PRESIDER: Paul Bedell,SUNY Coll of Technology, Farmingdale, NY.
9:30 am A Classroom Exercise for Teaching Common Models for Defining Abnormal Behavior.
Bernard Balleweg, Lycoming College, PA.

10:05 am Experiential Exercises for Counseling & Clinical Psychology: Eliza and the Vision Quest.
John R. Suler, Rider College, NJ.

10:40 am Teaching Clinical Material to Undergraduates: Experiential Learning through Analogs.
Michael D. Spiegler, Providence College, RI.

11:15 am A Videotaped Simulation of Ethical Issues as a Tool in Teaching Research Ethics to Psychology Undergraduates.
John B. Morganti, SUNY Buffalo, NY.

Room #2 PRESIDER: Morton Isaacs, Rochester Institute of Technology, NY
9:30 am Using Tests to Teach Test Validity and Reliability Concepts to Non-psychology Majors.
Frank M. Bernt,The American College, PA.

10:05 am Getting Undergraduates Involved in Psychological Research.
Kathleen E. Haring & Laura Snodgrass, Muhlenberg College, PA.

10:40 am Small Group projects- Active Learning.
Cathleen Turner Moore,
Philadelphia College of Pharmacy and Science, PA.

11:15 am "Mama Rats and Her Pups"- An Observational Project for a Course in General Psychology.
Bernard Mausner, Beaver College, PA.

Room #3 PRESIDER: Stanley C. Feist, SUNY College, Farmingdale, NY.
9:30 am Workshop: Classroom Exercises and Activities for a Course in Human Sexuality
Gregory J. Smith, Dickinson College, PA

12:00 Noon **CATERED LUNCH**

1:15- 3:15 pm **PRESENTATIONS**

Room #1 PRESIDER: Virginia Ryan, Sage/JCA, NY
1:15 pm Using Video to Achieve Higher Level Objectives in Teaching Psychology.
Gerald R. Levin, Bucknell University, PA.

1:55 pm Parent Interview Activity:
The Means and Ends of Raising Children.
Frank M. Bernt, The American College, PA.

2:40 pm The Special Friends Program:
A Developmental Psychology Practicum.
Gregory J. Smith, Dickinson College, PA.

Room #2 PRESIDER: Jack Morganti, SUNY Buffalo, NY
1:15 pm Workshop: An Introductory Psychology Laboratory Taught by Undergraduate Teaching Interns.
Thomas Creed, Victoria Littlefield and Michael Livingston,
St. John's Univ., College of St. Benedict, St. John's Univ., MN.

Room #3 PRESIDER: David S. Malcolm, Fordham University, NY
1:15 pm **Workshop: Writing to Learn in Psychology Classes.**
Barbara F. Nodine, Beaver College, PA.

3:15- 5:00 pm **ROUND TABLE DISCUSSION**
Share your ideas, printed material and special expertise though you are not formally presenting.

THE CONFERENCE COMMITTEE HAS CONSISTED OF THE FOLLOWING PEOPLE:

DR. STANLEY C. FEIST, CHAIRMAN, DR. JUDITH R. LEVINE, SUNY COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY AT FARMINGDALE
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Multiethnic, Crosscultural Illustrations for Psychology Courses.

Judith Gay

Chestnut Hill College

Abstract

Multiethnic, crosscultural illustrations of traditional concepts can be used to broaden the scope of psychology courses. Examples are given for two concepts - the relationship between similarity and attraction, and nation (versus person) perception.

Multiethnic, Crosscultural Illustrations for Psychology Courses

A multiethnic, crosscultural perspective in a course emphasizes the importance of information about different ethnic and cultural groups, encourages students to think about the generality of psychology concepts and theories, and focuses attention on culture as a factor for consideration by psychologists (Torney-Purta, 1984). In addition, the increasing ethnic diversity of the United States should make ethnicity an important topic for any well-educated college student (Olmedo, 1987; Suinn, 1987).

Information on ethnicity and culture could come from specialized courses, but Suinn (1987) argues that adding information on ethnicity to existing psychology courses, in addition to having a specialized course, has merit in that: (a) ethnicity, like gender differences, is part of the basic content of psychology; (b) ethnic information in courses suggests to students that the faculty support the idea that information on ethnicity is relevant in the curriculum; (c) important contemporary research on ethnicity is available; (d) information about ethnicity should reach those who would not take an elective course on ethnicity; and, (e) exposing students to ethnic research might serve as a stimulant for more research in the field. The obvious difficulty in increasing multiethnic, crosscultural information in existing courses is that such courses may already seem too full of information. To alleviate this problem, multiethnic, crosscultural illustrations for some traditional concepts can be used to begin the process of incorporating more information about ethnicity and culture.

The relationship between similarity and attraction is one example of a concept that can be adapted to a multiethnic, crosscultural perspective. Though there is still discussion about the nature of the relationship between similarity and attraction (e.g. Byrne, Clore, and Smeaton, 1986; Rosenbaum, 1986a, 1986b), texts generally emphasize the idea that increased similarity is associated with increased attraction. To demonstrate this association in my class, students were first asked to read relevant information (in the text or readings). About one week before the concept was to be discussed in class, students were given one copy of each of two surveys. The first survey contained a list of countries with instructions for the respondent to indicate how similar each country was to the United States by rank ordering the countries. The countries I used were: Afganistan, Angola, Austria, Belgium, Chad, Denmark, Ethiopia, France, Guinea, Ireland, Italy, Mali, Malawi, Mauritania, Mozambique, Netherlands, Norway, Somalia, Sweden, USSR (Russia).

The second survey was an attempt to get a judgement on social desireability. It had the same list of countries, but the respondent to this survey had to imagine that a person from one of the countries would spend the day in his or her home. The respondent then rank ordered the countries in terms of preference, from most preferred to least preferred homeland of the visitor. Students were told to be sure to give the two surveys to two different respondents. Surveys were turned in on a specified date. Additionally, students were asked to generate the hypothesis that was the basis for the information gathered and to speculate on the results, citing appropriate sources from the text and/or readings. During the class when all of the data was turned in, an assistant rank ordered the countries based on the average responses for both surveys and used Spearman's Rho to analyze the data. By the end of the class, students were told the results and were instructed to come to the next class prepared to discuss the results. The correlation for the data gathered by my most recent class was significant, *Rho* (df = 18) = .63, $p < .01$. As an alternative, students could have been given a summary of the data and could have computed and explained the correlation themselves. The discussion for the next class included, among other topics, methodological limitations of the project, the difference between perceived and actual similarity, and the meaning of the results for international relations and policies. The discussion also led easily to other factors involved in attraction.

A second illustration was sparked by a newspaper article on the "best places to live in the world." Estes (1986) has developed a scale, the Index of Social Progress (ISP), that he has used to evaluate the development of nations. I used information from the results of Estes' evaluation to introduce the concept of nation perception as an extension of the common social psychological concept of person perception. Tajfel (1981) suggests perception of other nations is influenced by the tendency people have to focus on the positive characteristics of their own nations. Forgas and O'Driscoll (1984) have provided some support for Tajfel's hypothesis. Thus, the things that are considered positive in a nation may be the things people think are important in evaluating other nations.

I gave students a list of the general categories used by Estes to evaluate 124 nations. Those categories were: education (e.g. pupil teacher ratio, adult literacy), health (infant mortality, life expectancy), status of women, defense, economy, demography (e.g. birth rate, total population), geography (vulnerabillity to natural disasters, amount of farmable land), political participation (e.g. political rights, civil liberties), cultural diversity (e.g. number of racial/ethnic groups), and welfare effort (e.g. taking care of the unemployed, invalids). Students rank ordered the categories from the category that was of most importance to them in evaluating a nation to the category that was of least importance to them. Then the students were given the rank ordering of the categories from Estes' data for the United States: political participation, health, economy, education, status of women, cultural diversity, welfare effort, demography, defense, geography. Students used Spearman's Rho to evaluate the rankings and found a significant correlation between what they thought was important and the areas in which our nation had already made progress, Rho (df = 8) = .74, $p < .05$, one-tailed. Students then considered the rankings for other nations and discussed how their people would respond. We also discussed international relations in terms of which nations ranked in ways that are similar to the United States and which nations ranked differently (attraction and similarity again). We did not have a large enough pool of foreign students to make it reasonable to look at their rankings for their own nations, but such a project would be a useful extension of the illustration. An advanced class did develop proposals for additional research by using Ogbu's (1978; 1986) contention that there are different kinds of minority groups in the United States, some of whom feel disenfranchised and others who do not.Thus, African Americans (an example of a castelike minority for Ogbu) might be expected to rank the ISP factors differently than Jewish people (an example of an autonomous minority for Ogbu) or Japanese Americans (an example of an immigrant minority for Ogbu).

In conclusion, multiethnic, crosscultural illustrations can be used for traditional concepts in psychology courses. Information about ethnicity spurs discussion in the classroom and emphasizes the importance of ethnic information for all students.

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A Computerized Information Test

I. Michael Cyrulnik, Ph. D.

State University of New York

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This paper introduces microcomputer software that I developed to allow instructors to incorporate explanations of the answers to their true/false tests on a user-friendly floppy disc, which students might review at their leisure throughout the semester.

My software is compatible with MS-DOS operating systems and requires minimal computer skills on the part of the user. The test is contained entirely on a single 5-1/4" floppy disk. The student inserts the disk into drive A of an IBM-compatible microcomputer, the test file boots itself automatically (by an AUTOEXEC.BAT file), and from that point on the student is instructed to press <T> or <F> for True or False, and <SPACEBAR> or <<Q> to continue the test or to "quit". If the student completes the entire test, his or her score is computed automatically and displayed on screen. When the test is over, the screen displays a message advising the student that the disk may be removed.

As the test proceeds, the screen displays a statement and prompts the user to indicate that the statement is true or false. When the user responds, the screen displays the correct answer along with an explanation. I consider this one of the most important features of the software -- the fact that the program is able to provide the student with immediate feedback about the correct answer along with a detailed explanation of the reason why that is the correct answer. The program keeps track of the score internally by comparing the user´s response with the correct answer that is stored in the program´s answer key. The screen then prompts the user to indicate that he or she wants to continue with the next question or would prefer to "quit" (i. e., end the test).

Although the test file that I initially developed deals with the topic of human sexuality, an important feature of the software is that the program can easily be edited and used as a matrix for presenting a true/false test on any other subject matter that an instructor might find suitable to his or her own coursework. Even if the number of questions is altered, the computed score will automatically adjust to take account of the new number.

The instructor must have some elementary skills in the use of BASIC in order to adapt the test to a new subject matter, but the program makes the process simple. The text of the questions is written as a set of DATA statements beginning with line 1001. So to change question #10, for example, the instructor changes the text stored in line 1010. The explanatory answers are written as DATA statements beginning with line 2001, and the answer key begins with line 3001. So to change answer #10, the instructor changes the explanatory text stored in line 2010 and the true/false indication in line 3010.

The instructor can also change the title of the test -- which is stored as DATA in line 1000, and the number of questions in the test -- which is assigned to the variable "N" in line 4000. As with any editing procedure in BASIC, the instructor must press <RETURN> after each newly revised logical line to save the contents to RAM memory, and must SAVE the edited program to disk if it is to be used again.

The program also allows the instructor to begin with any desired Question number when he or whe wishes to review the test. The test normally begins with Question #1 because line 100 assigns the variable "Q" a value of "1". But if, for example, the instructor wants to review Question #50 directly as it will be displayed on screen, without going through the first 49 qsuestions, the instructor edits or re-writes line 100 to assign the variable "Q" a value of "50" instead of a value of "1". When the program is now RUN, it begins with Question #50.

One of the most important features of the program is a subroutine that formats the text of the questions and answers for screen display. Normally, word-processing software is used to align textual material within the boundaries of the screen display. But a BASIC program ordinarily prints the text stored in its DATA lines directly on the screen, without any ability to align lengthy text that may exceed the width of the screen. I devised a formatting subroutine in BASIC that mimics the alignment feature of word-processing software. The instructor types the text of the questions and answers into the DATA lines of the program, without having to determine in advance where to insert <CARRIAGE RETURN>s to align the display on screen, because the formatting routine (lines 500-630) will later take care of the alignment automatically.

The principle is really simple -- the formatting routine treats the text in each question or answer as a lengthy string statement. It then examines a subset of characters, from this string, that would just fit on the screen (e. g., it examines 80 characters at a time, for an 80-column screen). The examination begins with the last character (which would display at the rightmost corner of the screen) and continues backwards (to characters that would display more and more towards the left).

When the routine finds a character that is a "blank space" (i. e., a break between words), it converts the "blank space" to a <CARRIAGE RETURN>, and stores the string up to and including this <CARRIAGE RETURN> as a newly "fomatted line" that will eventually be displayed on screen. The routine then examines the next 80 characters that follow this <CARRIAGE RETURN>, and formats them by again converting the rightmost "blank space" to a <CARRIAGE RETURN>. This newly "formatted line" is now concatenated onto the first "formatted line", and the whole string is eventually displayed on screen as a properly aligned text.

TEACHING
THE UNDERPREPARED STUDENT
AT
THE COLLEGE LEVEL

STANLEY C. FEIST, PH.D.

SUNY COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY
AT FARMINGDALE

TEACHING THE UNDERPREPARED STUDENT AT THE COLLEGE LEVEL

I would like to discuss some current problems for our consideration. We all seem to be struggling with the same problem! On every occasion where faculty gather, sooner or later, someone brings up the topic of our students. Inevitably, the comment is made that they are not what they used to be; they cannot read or write well; they are just not bright enough; oh! for the good old days. I recall hearing a Math professor from Stony Brook, discuss his undergraduate study. Do you know that he once signed up for a math course that had a prerequisite of trigonometry. He hadn't been aware of the prerequisite before signing up for the course; he considered the options; then he went to the library, borrowed a trig text and learned it so that he could remain in the selected course. I don't know about you, but it's been a very long time since I had any student that resembled that kind of motivation or ability. Be that as it may, the fact remains that these are the students that you and I have opted to teach; I'm not sure about Harvard, Yale, or some of the other very prestigious institutions, but I suspect that, even there, it's not what it used to be. It is in our best interest, yours and mine, to find the means to help our current students learn in the most effective manner possible.

The ubiquitousness of the problem became evident to me at a seminar I attended last summer. This meeting was given under the auspices of the National Center for Research to Improve Postsecondary Teaching and Learning (NCRIPTAL, Bill McKeachie) of the University of Michigan. This meeting was hosted at Western Carolina University in Cullowhee, NC. Participants were faculty and administrators from every area of the United States; they made it very apparent that they had the same problem of underprepared students that so many of us here must deal with.

The conference was meant to act as a catalyst for research, change and improvement in instruction and learning at the postsecondary level; much as I hope this presentation will do for you. The participants at Cullowhee were people whom the conference leaders believed could or would try to influence change on their home campuses. I allowed time to pass before I tried to evaluate their persentations more objectively, free of the emotional high that comes from working with and living among a group of dedicated believers, a group very different from many of my daily colleagues.

I frequently have coffee with colleagues who grumble and moan about their students but do nothing to improve the situation except to continue to teach as they always have done. I believe that the issue of finding a way to reach and teach our present crop of students is of paramount importance to each of us. Complaining is not enough; it behooves us to give this problem strong consideration and effort.

The current Conference has much the same kind of concern as the NCRIPTAL meeting but limits that concern to the one discipline of Psychology. In addition to concern about student difficulty in learning, many participants at our past psychology conferences have specifically stated that they began to teach as TA's and **never** had any instruction in how to teach. This has been noted as a problem encountered on almost every campus throughout the nation, despite the fact that most campuses are teaching institutions and not research centers. One of the purposes of the present meeting is to expose undergraduate faculty to an active learning situation where the ideas, opinions and experiences of others in similar situations can be exchanged so that we may teach and learn from each other.

It is essential that we consider new and innovative ways to teach our students. The Humanities Task Force on the Improvement of Teaching at Seton Hall University in New Jersey reported that "...faculty expectations of our students tended to be low and those expectations tended both to be communicated and self-fulfilling." Additionally, we tend to teach as we were taught; the Seton Hall task force suggests "attending to their (the students') learning styles and levels of cognitive development rather than our own" as a means of improving the teaching and learning in the classroom. This is especially true in the absence of any other pedagogic techniques.

Cross and Angelo make the following assumptions in their 1988 publication Classroom Assessment Techniques (NCRIPTAL).

> **Assumption**: The quality of student learning is directly-- although not exclusively-- related to the quality of classroom teaching. Therefore, the first and most promising way to improve learning is to improve teaching.
>
> **Assumption**: The research most likely to improve teaching and learning is that conducted by teachers on questions they themselves have formulated in response to problems and issues in their own teaching.

I believe that many of us here have the experience and the expertise to make our mark in these "hot" areas of concern about current student learning difficulties., We are concerned teachers; as such, we need to begin with the agreement that our present students are indeed different than we were as students; they do not have the same needs or motivation. They were raised in a world of technology certainly offering childhood experiences very different than my own and, except for the very young among us here, different from your experiences also. At the same time, these students are intelligent, functional human beings, worthy of our empathy and respect.

We, as teachers, need to start by re-examining our specific goals for each course we teach; are we trying to develop critical thinking, occupational skills or rote memory of facts? How can we best accomplish the goal set for the particular course; what teaching strategies can be used to effectively instruct in light of these specific long term goals (or perhaps just for the immediate lesson)? Do the testing techniques used give accurate feedback on the degree of attainment of the specific course or lesson goals? If you are trying to teach attitude or concept material which should enlarge the students' schema in a selected area, can a multiple choice, fill-in or true-false test tell you how well the student has integrated that cognitive material? Would a brief essay test be better? Do you know how to grade an essay fairly and accurately? What strategies can we teach to the student to enable him/her to better learn what we want to teach? These are but a few of the areas that need examination.

Other considerations have to do with the zeitgeist concerning teaching at the present time; teaching in the U.S. has never been a terribly prestigious profession. You are all aware of early American rules for the teacher: get to class an hour before the students: sweep the floor: wash the blackboard: dress with proper decorum: do not frequent bars, dance halls or other places of ill repute. There still exist places where similar rules abound, perhaps not quite to the same extent. One of my colleagues still tells of teaching in a small town where, when he wanted to go out to a restaurant with his wife, he would go to a neighboring town to reduce the probability of anyone catching him drinking a glass of wine with dinner; teachers are not well respected in our society.

In addition, the Association of American Colleges has reported a "decline and devaluation of undergraduate education" and a transformation of professors from teachers ...to professional scholars with Ph.D. degrees with an allegiance to academic disciplines stronger than their committment to teaching" Teaching effectiveness and scholarship, not research and publication, should be the prime criterion for promotion according to the 1985 Carnegie Foundation Survey of College Faculty, yet that is not how it is. Seldin (1984) reported that there is no correlation between research productivity and teaching effectiveness. Numerous other reports strongly recommend that greater attention be paid to effective college teaching at the undergraduate level. There is much controversy about how to evaluate effective teaching; yet research, which needs to be carefully examined, does exist for valid evaluation of teaching effectiveness. There are several easily identified components of effective teaching; they are peer evaluation, administrative evaluation, student evaluation, self report, as well as concrete evidence of scholarship and continuing growth in a discipline. Each of these needs to be carefully and objectively considered.

Evidence of the greater weight given to research rather than teaching in our schools can be noted in the description of faculty positions as offering research opportunities as compared to a teaching "load". Productive researchers are often "rewarded" with a reduction in "teaching load". Researchers on faculty are more often willing to consult with a colleague for advice or constructive criticism concerning a research paper than to ask for feedback to improve some aspect of teaching; the teaching is somehow considered a private matter, and something that one should almost instinctively know how to do well. In fact, most of us have seen how adamantly some faculty fight to protect the sanctity of their classroom under the guise of academic freedom. Please understand that I, in no way, want to erode any aspect of academic freedom. However, is it really true that once a faculty member has been granted continuing appointment or tenure, that person is no longer in need of peer review to further improve classroom performance? Can we as teachers acknowledge that we know everything, even in our own discipline? I would suppose that those who know everything are not here now; they are pontificating somewhere else., something I hope I do not do. It is obvious to me that we, here, know a great deal more than those who "know it all"; we know that we do not know. Are we then among those who are so insecure that we are unwilling to allow someone into the classroom to assist in pointing out the weak spots that could benefit from a little shoring up? I sincerely hope that is not the case. But then, I'm probably addressing the wrong audience, the people I should talking to are not here, they are back there telling everyone else the right way to do it.

To repeat the assumptions of Cross and Angelo:

> **Assumption**: The quality of student learning is directly-- although not exclusively-- related to the quality of classroom teaching. Therefore, the first and most promising way to improve learning is to improve teaching.
>
> **Assumption**: The research most likely to improve teaching and learning is that conducted by teachers on questions they themselves have formulated in response to problems and issues in their own teaching.

If your institition demands research as a requisite for promotion, give it to them; but remember, you have chosen to teach, be a better teacher; do use your scholarship and research to improve teaching. It is up to us, you and me, to discuss, research and share with one another --and with our students- the possible solutions to the problems inherent in teaching college undergraduates today.

Stanley C. Feist, Ph.D.
3/10/89

Teaching and Advising the Reluctant Psychology Major

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Title of Presentation: Teaching and Advising the Reluctant
Psychology Major

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A growing concern over student attrition rates combined with the desire to more effectively meet the education needs of our Psychology majors led to the development of two student surveys. For the first survey, data was collected across six college divisions: Business, Math and Computers, Humanities, Physical Sciences, Communications, and Social and Behavioral Sciences. Career goals, demographic information, parental expectations, educational goals, etc. were investigated. Among several very interesting findings, it was noted that Psychology Majors reported feeling the least comfortable with their career choice, stating they had changed majors more than once, are contemplating changing into another major (outside of the Psychology field), and reported feeling the least parental support for their career aspiration (that is, Psychology majors often reported that their parents did not want them to be Psychology majors).

Additionally, a survey was conducted to examine the views and opinions of 194 alumni of the Marist Undergraduate Psychology and Psychology/Special Education Program. One hundred and twenty females and 74 males from the graduating classes of 1966 to 1987 answered a 19 item survey dealing with questions about the undergraduate program, present employment, and graduate school. Eighty-seven percent of those surveyed rated the overall program as being excellent, or good, with the faculty receiving this rating most often (92%) and the library the least often (44%). Twenty-seven of the alumni are teachers and 48% are employed in a psychology or psychology related field. 51% have earned a graduate degree and another 14% are working on it. The students overwhelmingly reported they felt adequately prepared to enter a career after receiving their undergraduate psychology degree. Most psychology majors also planned to obtain an advance degree, although often not in the field of psychology. In conclusion, those who responded were generally satisfied with the program, and are now employed in many different types of jobs.

Korn and Nordine, on the other hand, found that most graduates of a psychology program pursue careers with only a bachelor's degree, and according to Korn and Lewandowski the careers most often reported are in the clinical field (Prerost & Reich, 1984). Matthews (1982) also concluded that psychology majors employed at the baccalaureate levels tend to have a wide range of occupations and that they were "upwardly mobile" within their jobs.

As for how many graduates of psychology programs actually receive a graduate degree, the exact percentage varies from survey to survey, but a number of researchers seem to agree that it is somewhere around 50%; Lunneborg and Wilson (1985), 48%, Ware and Mayer (1981), 59%, Wise, Smith and Fulkerson (1983), 49%.

In our alumni survey analyzing current employment, only 10% of the alumni who answered the question about their present job (Question 12) consider themselves to be either psychologists or therapists, and interestingly enough more than 90% of those are male. Twenty-seven percent of the respondents are teachers, 32% hold jobs that fall under the social occupational type, and 13% are employed in the business world. Significantly more of the teachers are females, 36% females versus 6% males.

The remainder of this paper will be devoted to specific suggestions for Psychology program activities directly related to the findings of the above surveys. First, it appears necessary to begin spending more time discussing the different jobs people trained in psychology can do and the education necessary to perform these jobs. This should occur more consistently, particularly in Introductory Psychology courses and unfortunately many introductory teachers leave this section of a text for the student to read on their own and this may be especially inappropriate for psychology and undeclared majors. More planning in-class or out-of-class activities which involve small group discussion or study groups seems to positively impact group identity and satisfaction with the major.

Additionally, we conduct a freshman psychology orientation program during the first few weeks of classes. Psychology majors are required to attend this meeting and other interested students are invited to attend. During this orientation, the following activites take place: (1) an introduction of all full-time faculty who speak briefly; (2) an overview of psychology major requirements, including the internship; (3) an invitation to join the Psychology Club; (4) information about how to qualify for honorary societies; and (5) a discussion of career options and long-term educational requirements. We also provide print-material for the students to take with them which focus on the topics discussed in the orientation meeting. Additionally, college wide career fairs are conducted for freshmen and sophomore undecided majors which address these same issues. Also, during mandated advisement sessions with each psychology major, we not only discuss course selections, but we also mapout long term career possibilities.

Recently, we have adjusted our sequence of course offerings to help increase discipline identity and overall commitment to the college. We have a two semester course sequence in both the sophomore and junior year that all psychology majors must take. We also have a required common course that all seniors must take. This practice appears to increase students' commitment to the department and they express the sense of "feeling more at home" earlier on in there stay at college. These students also become more quickly familiar with full-time faculty as well as other students in their same field of study. Involvement in the Psychology Club has appeared to positively enhance our Psychology major. The club activities expose students to psychology-related events and careers. Club activities include: sponsorship of an undergraduate research conference; attendance at professional conference; involvement in faculty research; guest speakers; social activities; fund raisers; and service programs to local community groups. It has been found that students who engage in these activities are less likely to change majors, transfer, or drop out of school. Furthermore, we recognize that faculty and staff, rather than just student members, need to actively invite new students to join this organization not to merely make these organizations available. We are recently recognizing the need to provide literature regarding career opportunities directly to the student's parents as well. This can be done through campus orientation specifically for the psychology major and/or by sending written material to the parent's home. Increased parental support for their children's chosen major is expected to positively impact psychology major stability and career-comfort level.

There seems to be a growing need to more actively recognize student academic and service activities. Faculty may be well-advised to send out departmental letters congratulating their own majors for special achievements. Faculty need to prioritize attending events at which their own students are being recognized. Many colleges have a graduating senior award, and we might want to consider adding awards recognizing outstanding freshmen, sophomores, and juniors for both academics and serving to the college community. We also need to analyze whether honors programs (traditional and/or non-traditional) would help us retain the more able students. Marist College has a 5-Year Master's degree program to which academically exceptional sophomores are invited to apply. If accepted, during their junior year, they begin in the program by taking a single graduate course each semester. This seems to have had a positive impact on the retention of academically superior psychology students.

Nationwide 50% of the entering class will be lost from the institution they originally enrolled in and the greatest proportion of attrition occurs during the first two years, so we need to provide early direction and intervention. Ramist (1981) argues that very few students end up leaving school due to circumstances beyond their control. Most students leave because of dissatisfaction with (or lack of sufficient perceived benefits from) the academic or social life of the institution. For some, this dissatisfaction would be present regardless of the educational service that is provided. For some students their original college choice and/or career choice was an error, and their dissatisfaction could be eliminated by transfer. For still others, a better, more complete educational service offered by their college, by those who advise them, may prevent or reduce their source of dissatisfaction or may have changed their perception of the long-range college benefits, and may result in retention.

Tinto (1975) reported that voluntary withdrawals (nearly 85%) of all withdrawals generally show both higher grade performance and higher levels of intellectual development than do the average persisters. This suggests that higher education institutions are less able to meet the needs of its most creative and challenging students. Voluntary departers leave even while obtaining adequate levels of academic performance. These individuals do not appear to have a sense of commitment to the academic and social community of the college. We need to find ways to increase satisfaction and commitment.

Researchers (Tinto, 1975; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1976 Macmillan & Kester, 1973) have indicated we may be well advised to more actively acknowledge the special needs of our diverse population of students (e.g., women vs. men; black vs. white, etc). We also need to realize that some of our colleagues are better able to work with these students (i.e., recognizing not all faculty may be good advisors). Psychology professors may need to actively look at the special needs of women in particular, since psychology departments are becoming more and more dominated by women students. Women seem to need more frequent social contact with faculty (both formally and informally outside of class). Women often have more family pulls working against their academic priorities. Therefore, women may need special counseling and support to help them deal with these family concerns and often, lack of parental support. Finally, we should be actively trying to get a better sense of the needs of all our culturally diverse students and honestly presenting to them the options available within the field of psychology.

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Group Supervision of Novice Psychology Instructors: Application of Psychodynamic Principles to the Group As Well as the Classroom

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Anyone who has ever taught has had the experience of "How do I do this?" "Will I be effective", "What does it mean to be effective?" Will the students like me?", "How shall I get my point across?" "I've been trained in the subject matter but not in how to get it across to others." How many have shared these doubts, concerns, and issues with others? What effect did these concerns have on what the novice teacher did in the classroom? To admit these concerns to a superior would be unthinkable as well - the chairman was expecting you to be the expert. Most new teachers when confronted with this dilemma plunge right in, usually by over preparing, compulsively writing out notes and perhaps even strictly reading from them. Suppose the novice teacher had the opportunity to discuss these anxieties with others in the same situation - all novices - all trying to appear competent. Again there would be a great deal of resistance to acknowledging one's own fears and feelings of insecurity. A solution: organize novices in a group with an experienced leader to help the group become a comfortable place to "open up" and share the performance anxieties that are rampant in beginning teachers. This procedure was carried out in the Psychology Department at Hofstra University for four years as an experimental attempt to deal with these issues. Since the program was in the Psychology Department, some of the issues discussed were particularly relevant to psychologists (such as where does the line get drawn between being a therapist and a teacher). However, most of the points can be applied to any college teaching situation.

It is the contention of this paper that all too often there is either no training offered to college teachers of psychology (as well as other subject areas) or the focus is on content, what should be taught or how i.e. it may be dictated that the instructor have 3 or more objective scoring criteria for his students. A propective teacher may read any one of a number of excellent texts which wil point out the benefits of lecture vs. discussion, etc. But there is no opportunity to explore which method the new teacher feels most comfortable with and can therefore utilize more effectively. Nor is the novice able to see how his own personality might affect the choice of teaching method and style in the classroom. It's one thing to read about authoritarian vs.democratic teaching styles - but very difficult to be "democratic" if one is "authoritarian" or to lead a discussion if one is terrified of fielding questions. Oftentimes the emphasis, even in research, is on which teaching technique is more effective but not on which teacher can utilize which technique under what circumstances at what point in their careers. One's teaching is an evolutionary process. Especially at the beginning, there is much need for a forum to explore oneself, one's attitudes toward teaching, weaknesses and strengths, expectations, etc.

The newly appointed Chairman of Hofstra's Psychology Department asked me to start a Teacher Apprenticeship program. The goals were multiple: (1) provide a training ground for new psychology teachers, (2) involve the current psychology teaching staff in an ongoing interaction with novice teachers to give the "old timers" an opportunity to a) re-exam their own teaching styles while communicating their experience to the novice teacher b) have some assistance in carrying out their teaching duties, (3) enrich the undergraduate program by providing new "blood" in the form, for example, of demonstrations to be given by the apprentices and workshops on applying to graduate school, etc.

First year graduate students (some as part of fellowship requirements) were given an opportunity to enroll in the program based primarily on their desire to teach psychology. The 10-12students who could meet at a common time were all accepted into the program. Each student picked a veteran instructor in the department to which he "apprenticed". Weekly group sessions of an hour were conducted to discuss the issues that occurred as a result of their experiences in the classroom.

Since the group was led by a psychologist who was a trained psychotherapist as well as a 20-year teaching veteran and consisted of psychology graduate students, some interesting comparisons could be made showing how psychology and teaching overlap as well as how psychotherapeutic issues and theories can be seen operating in both the training of psychologists as teachers and in the undergraduate classroom itself. The theme of how one's own personality and unresolved issues of self and security can and do affect one's teaching was demonstrated repeatedly, i.e. how the teacher overcompensates for insecurity or how his defensiveness operates in the classroom.

The paper to be presented deals with the application of several basic psychodynamic concepts (transference, resistance and countertransference) to training novice teachers of psychology. In the group supervision, these prinmciples had been applied to topics such as: what are the goals of teaching, how best to institute these goals, how to increase responsibility of the student for his own learning, how to deal with cheating, disruptive students in class, limits of responsibility of the instructor for the emotional needs of the students, understanding how the teacher's own anxiety and narcissistic needs might interfere with meeting the needs of students, grading practices, construction of tests and methods of evaluation. A selected few of the topics will be reviewed in this paper. The references that follow the paper, althought not referred to in the text due to time limitations, represent a review of the literature in which psychotherapy issues, broadly defined, have been related to either training teachers or the classroom itself.

The apprenticeship was set up on an individual basis and a loosely defined contract was agreed upon by the apprentice and instructor and reviewed by me. Over the four years, as problems were noted, the necessity for a clearly defined contract evolved. Without an explicit contract, oftentimes either instructors had relied too heavily on the apprentice for taking over classes, or had not allowed enough time for the apprentice to teach. Thus, it became clear that the two had to agree in advance, sometimes in writing, on the approximate number of times and for how much of the class the apprentice would teach. Other issues to be decided in advance were: Would the teacher be there also?; On what basis would the topics for the apprentice be chosen? Would the apprentice help make up tests, proctor them, grade them, lead review sessions, observe the instructor at how many classes, have office hours? The decision points were numerous and the decisions were reached by mutual agreement on an individual basis.

It became clear that in fairness to the students in the class who had registered for a particular instructor, an upper limit of apprentice-led classes had to be imposed - which was about 4-5 sessions during a semester. Some instructors only used the apprentices to run review sessions in non-class time slots and/or to cover the class when the instructor was unavailable.

At times, the weekly group supervisory session would be devoted to discussing problems that arose between the instructors and the apprentices, such as how to get the instructor to stick to the contract. Another problem between instructors and apprentices involved embarrassing or stressful interactions - e.g. the instructor corrected the apprentice in front of the class. As may be apparent, these issues were "extra- teaching" ones - i.e. would not have arisen but for the format of this approach. However, as in the following example, these "extra-teaching" problems could still be related to the primary goal of training the apprentices as teachers. One such discussion dealt with a problem between the instructor and the apprentice in which the instructor was treating the apprentice in a somewhat condescending way. This discussion led to looking at the apprentices' own difficulty in viewing themselves as the authority/ teacher and not "just a student," i.e. the need to bridge the gap in self-image between being a student and being "the teacher."

In addition, such an issue as condescension between the instructor and the apprentice had clear implications for the apprentices as teachers in their attitudes towards their own students. Did they embarrass their own students? What were embarrassing moments in their own careers as students? How could they avoid treating their students in an arrogant way? This kind of discussion would lead easily into which factors in one's personality migh lead a teacher (in this case themselves) to behave arrogantly or condescendingly to students. The apprentices came to the conclusion that the teacher's own insecurity was the underlying reason for treating students in a condescending way.

As the group became more cohesive and the members trusted each other, ways in which the apprentice's own insecurity led him to behave nonconstructively in the classroom were worked on repeatedly. For example, in a later discussion where an apprentice used sarcasm to handle an obstreporous student, the other apprentices were able to help the apprentice in question explore how she felt threatened by the student and responded by using sarcasm to embarrass the student. Other ways of handling an obstreporous student were suggested by the group. The student apprentices discussed what factors would make a student act aggressively in a class. Thus, they felt more prepared to deal with hostility from students without "taking it personally" and reacting defensively in a counter-attack on the aggressive student. They brought their own experiences both as students and teacher apprentices into the discussion. I believe this is one of the benefits of this supervision approach - to be the student and the teacher simultaneously enables one to switch perspectives and empathize with one's own students and one's own teachers. Since the apprentices were currently graduate students, it was helpful to relate what they were experiencing as teachers to understanding classroom situations they themselves were in as graduate students. This concept is similar to the psychoanalytic approach in training psychotherapists which recommends that therapists become more effective if they themselves have been in therapy.

After the first year, some of the apprentices stayed on for a second year while new students were admitted to the apprentice program. This format was decided upon for a number of reasons. Primarily, the "older" apprentices could then provide the newer apprentices with guidance and the benefits of profiting from their own "errors" during their first year. It also provided the apprentices who were more likely to go on to become college teachers with further opportunity to gain experience. Continuity within the group was also insured. The group did not have to start all over again. The new apprentices could learn the ropes and implicit rules (e.g. try to express your feelings as well as thoughts) in the group from the older ones.

Having more than one level of apprentice in the group also provided an opportunity to duplicate the situation in miniature that was described earlier, i.e. the learner and the more experienced. Issues such as this could be dealt with in the form of group process - i.e. what kinds of feelings were generated in the older apprentices? - did they feel more responsible, more called upon to be "experts" as teachers? - did it bring forth condescension or supportiveness in them toward the newer apprentices? On the other hand, how did the newer students feel in regard to the older ones? - did they feel competitive or allow themselves to learn from the experiences of the older ones? Again, discussion of this type, while starting out as "extra-teaching", usually returned to the primary purpose of the group: the apprentices as teachers in relation to their own students - i.e. did they have tolerance for themselves as "not knowing it all" as a teacher as well as tolerance for what it feels like to be in the "subordinate" position of the learner. A typical discussion would center around how some college students might experience themselves as in a subordinate position to their teachers and to how those feelings might affect the student's behavior in the classroom - i.e. Did such students resent and thus resist the teacher's attempts to get them to work and learn, perhaps in passive ways by not handing in assignments on time. The discussion focused on how the teacher might become defensively angry. Did the teacher-apprentices experience students' passive-aggressive behavior as a threat to their authority and then react too harshly to such students? Alternative ways of handling this phenomenon such as encouraging students to verbalize their resentment to the teacher were suggested Of course, since this later approach requires teachers to tolerate a student's criticisms, the ensuing discussions returned to the topic of the teacher's own insecurity; - i.e. having his authority questioned and how that sometimes leads a teacher to act out non-constructively to students.

Related discussions concerned the overall goals of a college education,e.g. one such goal would be to develop a student's ability to learn autonomy and autonomously learn. Did we want our students to just obey? - we give them an assignment and they do it; or do we want student to be able to question authority in a meaningful, non-aggressive, non-threatening way. How many times did the apprentices as students hurt themselves by acting out destructively (e.g.. by not completing assignments) because they were angry at what they thought were the unreasonable demands of the teacher? How else might they have handled such reactions?; how do they want their students to handle it with them - directly or indirectly?

The way this supervision group was conducted can be seen in the above descriptions. Discussions were encouraged, ideas called for. The course of any discussion could not be predicted. This free-flow of ideas also provided a learning model - that the teacher need not always have a set agenda in the classroom, need not compulsively cover the material but, rather, involve the students in directing the flow as long as the discussions stay relevant to the central issue. Although approaching the topic from different perspectives, we were *always* discussing *teaching*. I would say that the teacher has to be able to tolerate ambiguity - and we would be off and running to the goals of teaching (increase self-reliance, autonomy, free exchange of ideas). Which teachers in their past taught them the most and what is it that they remembered - facts or more central themes? What characteristics in their teachers did they admire? - i.e. tolerance for ideas to come from the students, non-condescension, exuberance for the subject matter; not just rigidly reading from an old stained set of notes, etc. These kinds of discussions typically led to their feeling more competent as teachers which included being able to let go of rigidity in their own thinking of what a teacher *should* be - e.g. only a purveyor of knowledge and facts. They concluded that a teacher should be a living example of someone interested in new ideas, and the exchange of ideas, as well as having the ability to tolerate *not knowing* rather than being dogmatic.

As pointed out earlier, psychoanalytic concepts can be seen operating in both the training of psychologists as teachers and in the undergraduate class itself. These concepts from psychoanalytic psychotherapy are transference, resistance and countertransference.
Brief definitions of all three follow. Transference involves the client

projecting the personalities of significant people from his childhood onto the therapist and then acting in relation to the therapist as if he were that significant other. We would examine how students project other figures from their life onto their teachers - e.g. if a male student had been in a competitive relation with his father he might transfer that onto the classroom situation and interact with the teacher in a challenging, possibly argumentative way. The teacher's own reaction in this type of situation has to be examined;if not, his own competitiveness might get stirred up (countertransference reaction) and he could get involved in a power struggle with the student. By discussing the feelings engendered in the apprentice in such charged situations he becomes aware of the interaction as well as the student's underlying issues, and so can deal with that student in a non-defensive way. Understanding the dynamics involved gives the teacher more control over himself and a tool to use in a more productive way.

Resistance is another concept which has useful applications. In therapy, although presumably, at least on a conscious level, the patient is there to give up or change old maladaptive behavior patterns, on an unconscious level there are motives resistant to change. Obsolete defenses serve to maintain even an unsatisfactory mental status quo and lead to repetitious maladaptive behavior patterns in the patient's current life. The therapist's task is to help the patient "outgrow" archaic defenses and to learn new, more adequate ways of handling current situations.

In the classroom, the equivalent formulation to resistence in therapy is that the student ostensibly is there to learn - but there are nonproductive repetitious patterns which lead the student to undermine the learning process. Perhaps, in his past he had an authoritarian parent figure whom he learned to deal with by passive resistance - i.e. agreeing,compliantly to perform tasks but not following through. Anyone who has taught has had this type of student. Such behavior can be infuriating if the teacher gets caught up in an authoritarian position believing that his authority is at stake when the student doesn't follow through on tasks (especially group projects which leave other students in the lurch). Having one apprentice look at his response to such a student was extremely illuminating and reduced the tension in their interaction. The other apprentices also explored their reactions to other similar students.

Another phenomenon which was examined in light of the three concepts (transference, countertransference, resistence) involved situations in which an apprentice felt antagonistic to the whole class. He might have had negative feelings about the way the class was going, or felt a lack of rapport, or that many students were not listening or talking, etc. The apprentice's reactions of anger, resentment or trepidation about going into that class were explored especially in comparison to other classes in which the opposite was occurring. The apprentice's negative reaction (countertransference) was examined and the roots of it uncovered in light of what the class's motives were (transference) and how it took a particular form (resistence, in this case group resistence.

Oftentimes, teachers may have negative reactions (anger, dislike, competitiveness) to either individual students, groups of students, or the whole class. Having such feelings may not fit with the teacher's self-concept of being an understanding, concerned teacher. Such unacceptable feelings, and the conflict thus generated between the impulses and the self-image, go "underground" and certainly are difficult to discuss with colleagues. One of the basic tenets of psychodynamic psychotherapy is readily applicable to the group supervision of novice teachers. Feelings (especially those not appropriate or too strong for the situation from an observer's point of view) and irrational reactions do not just disappear on their own; rather, when left unexplored and unresolved, they interfere with and influence one's behavior. Similarly, unconscious conflicts don't merely get "willed" away. The psychodynamic approach is based on the assumption that one gains more control by first acknowledging unacceptable feelings, and then examining and understanding them. Otherwise the unconscious conflict is often "acted out" in behavior rather than being experienced. It is important to (1) admit unacceptable feelings to oneself and (2) discuss them in an open, accepting environment.

It is my contention that it is best to directly encourage teachers, and students, as was done with the apprentices, to express and admit to negative feelings so that they may be dealt with in a more constructive way. Thus, the expression of negative feelings re: the ongoing group supervision was encouraged, e.g. What didn't the supervisees like about the way the group was being conducted? In effect, the model was "do as I do, not just as I say." Similarly, they were encouraged to air any socially disapproved of reactions to their classes in the group. Just as in therapy, exposure in a non-judgmental setting leads to increased self-acceptance and self-esteem and therefore to more confidence as a teacher. Not just one's "persona" or professional self was to be shown in the group. Rather than feeling two-faced about oneself. integration of all parts of oneself was encouraged. Integration took place on many levels, e.g. accepting one's dual role as a student and as a teacher, as more experienced than others as well as less experienced, humble as well as knowledgeable.

In the group, we talked of multiple facets of oneself, often in the context that peole "wear many hats" and the importance of being able to shift easily and comfortably. For example, the apprentices were often seen by their students as psychologists-therapists as well as teachers. An important discussion revolved around this issue which is often encountered in therapy. What were appropriate boundaries to establish? Where did their obligations begin and end in their two roles? If a student was visibly upset by psychological material brought up in class, how could that be handled? Were they to approach students who appeared to be having psychological problems or wait to see if students contacted them? Often a student asked for psychological help after class either for themselves or "for a friend", etc. What competency and obligation were they expected to have about making appropriate referrals or talking to the student after class. Non-psychology teachers are probably in this position as well, but it is particularly relevant to psychologists as teachers.

The last discussion re: two hats and boundaries is an issue which arises frequently in psychoanalaytic psychotherapy in the form of what is the relationship between therapist and patient. Is the therapist a friend?, an ally? an advisor? How much does the therapist reveal of himself to the patient? Does he reveal his own history, his own feelings, values? Share his thoughts and reactions to the patient? In psychoanalytic therapy, it is always important for the therapist to give "space"to the patient - i.e. not behave towards the patient as the patient's own parents may have done, perhaps in the form of trying to overinfluence or control. Oftentimes the patient has identity or "separation" issues re: where his parents' needs and wishes for him begin and end compared with the patient's own needs. Patients often have difficulty recognizing when their parents' needs are really being satisfied but put in the guise of "I'm only thinking of your best interest." If the therapist repeats this pattern with the patient, growth is inhibited. In training therapists, supervision is often concentrated on this issue - how to maintain "separateness" from the patient yet not be cold and unempathetic; how to nurture the patient's emerging individuality. The relevance of these issues to training teachers is readily apparent. Some ways in which these ideas were explored in the apprenticeship group will be delineated.

In one session, the issue of a fellow teacher using "foul" language in his class was brought up. This was discussed in terms of broken boundaries - that the students have a need to respect authority figures and if a teacher curses, the boundary is broken. The discussion centered on the teacher's possible need to establish rapport, mistakenly believing that by acting like one of the "kids" he would get closer to them. (Other reasons suggested were possibly for shock-value or letting out frustration). The apprentices concluded that this type of behavior on the part of a teacher probably made the students uncomfortable. They also "saw through" the attempt at "rapport." This discussion led to possible situations where "dirty" language might be appropriate as when used as an exercise in the beginning classes of a Human Sexuality course to desensitize the students to the subject matter. In addition, an apprentice brought up how to handle situations where students use inappropriate language in the classroom. The awkwardness experienced by the whole class when this occurs is often experienced by the teacher. Ways to handle this "awkward" or embarrassed feeling were dealt with. Do you ignore the broken boundary and act as if nothing happened? Do you react aggressively, etc.? As was often the case, one answer was not necessarily agreed upon. Rather the issue was raised, explored and each apprentice left to decide what action would be most comfortable for himself.

An issue overlapping with "boundary" concerns is that of "structure." In good analytic practice, the analytic hour is a highly structured event i.e. the rules are spelled out carefully. Both patient and therapist are expected to come on time, and end on time. The patient is to pay in a prescribed way and not miss sessions. Patient and therapist are not permitted to use any means of communication other than verbal. When the structure is ignored, therapist and patient explore the meaning of the action. For example, if a patient is consistently late, it is interpreted as a resistance to carrying out the analytic work. The patient is not scolded, threatened, abandonned or judged.

Similarly, issues of structure are paramount in the classroom. The apprentices agreed that expectations of appropriate student (and teacher) behavior need to be spelled out in the beginning of the term. Clearly the issue of cheating could be applied here. The apprentices often had difficulty dealing with cheating for many reasons. One was that they felt guilty for not having presented a clear picture to the class of what they regarded as cheating. If a student did not act in line with the apprentice's non-explicit rule, what recourse did the apprentice have? A related guilt issue was whether or not the apprentices had ever cheated themselves, when they were students. If they had cheated, how easy would it be to be in the other position of the authority figure and on the side of "law and order." Even if the apprentices had not cheated, one problem voiced was the difficulty in being the authority and not over- empathizing with the student position. The feeling expressed was as if the teacher was somehow betraying an unwritten student code of ethics of not turning in a fellow student. It was generally agreed that a clear definition of expectations of behavior would be helpful in dealing with cheating. Which policy would be set (a strict or lenient criterion) was discussed in relation to the personality type of the teacher. Some felt more comfortable with not making Type I errors - calling an innocent man guilty. Others were concerned about Type II errors - letting a guilty man go free.

The goal of this paper was to demonstrate the application of psychoanalytic principles and concepts to the training of novice psychology teachers as well as to the classroom itself. Only a selected number of the many topics actually covered in the aprenticeship group have been reviewed here. Hopefully, the reader will be able to extrapolate the concepts to most, if not all, of the interpersonal difficulties encountered between teachers and students in any subject matter as well as psychology.

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"THE SHAME OF NOT KNOWING"[1]

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The desire to know has its roots in existential shame. In examining how we, as humans, differ from other animal species, we come upon the surprising awareness that the human proclivity for constructive aspirations is fostered by the pangs of shame. Shame confronts us with the reality of our tenuous existence as human beings. Without this tragic sense we might mistakenly assume that we are fully taken care of in the world. Under this "vital lie," as Ernest Becker (1973) called it, we act as if we need not seek to better ourselves, or to improve our world. Shame is a constructive experience, insofar, as it fosters the conviction that each of us has an obligation to take an active participating role in our existence despite "the slings and arrows of outrageous fortune." Guilt (which must be understood in its contrast to shame, if shame is to be meaningfully appreciated) tells the sufferer that he/she is at fault, shame that the sufferer has inhibited a necessary and legitimate action. In this way, shame mirrors the awareness of our neglected ego-ideals. It derives moral imperative from our embarrassment of catching ourselves in the act of trying to deny our ontological responsibilities in taking hold of our life (Goldberg, in press). Without probing deeply our shame we forever as Hamlet tells us, "Lose the name of action."

As I have indicated above, to meaningfully understand shame we need to see it in contrast to guilt (Goldberg, 1988).

Guilt and Shame

The terms "guilt" and "shame" are common descriptions used to characterize how people monitor their sense of their own self-worth, guided by an inculcated code of personal and moral values. Due to their function in drive control (Lewis, 1971) and because they are in confluence with each other early in development in our culture (Erikson, 1963), guilt and shame generally are viewed together. Many theorists regard shame as the precursor to guilt in the fostering of moral values or, at best, a less vital form of guilt. Accordingly, most people do not readily differentiate the experience of shame from guilt so that it can be distinctly regarded as belonging in one category of moral transgression or the other (Miller, 1985). Guilt and shame are by their very nature susceptible to both additive and reversible reactions to one another. This is to say, shame often evokes guilt reactions and vice versa. Moreover, shame may be disguised, denied or bypassed by a host of subtle psychic mechanisms (Spero, 1985). For example, some people with a particularly tenuous self-regard can not tolerate even the slightest sense of shame and, unwittingly, convert humiliation into feelings of irrational guilt and self-doubt (Lewis, 1971).

The designation of "guilt" from the tacit conjunction of guilt and shame experiences has had the unfortunate effect of neglecting shame as an important and distinctive self-function (Lewis, 1971). The need to differentiate shame from guilt can be realized by examining their origins.

The Origins of Guilt and Shame

Guilt is incurred when a threatening figure from our past operates as an internalized agent of our value system. In guilt reactions our moral sentiments are the foci of unconscious psychic conflict. In contrast, in the accentuated, disturbed sense of self, which we call "shame," it is consciously envisioned, admired figures of our past, who are experienced as disappointed by our conduct. In short, the values of guilt are derived from the superego, internalized not from a personal sense of being "right," but fromthe fear of punishment and abandonment for the violation of moral values. Shame, in contrast, is regarded as a reaction to the subject's failure to live up to those sentiments of people he respects and admires. Shame values are, in short, ego-ideal assignments. The diminution of an idealized self-image results in a reaction of shame. Moreover, unlike guilt experiences in which specific values and actions are in conflict, shame is often especially painful because frequently the whole self is involved in the opprobrium of such variants as chagrin, embarrassment, mortification and humiliation (Lewis, 1971).

Above I have reviewed guilt and shame phenomenologically. However, because shame is a relatively neglected subject I need now to examine existing theory about its implications for self functions in order to elucidate its role in learning.

There is a diverse opinion among theorists about the intent of shame. A major position, popularized by Freud and other psychoanalysts, such as Jacobson and Nunberg, views shame primarily as a defensive strategy in the service of morality. According to this view, shame is a reaction reformation which intends the converse to what it is phenomenologically experienced to be by the subject. As such, shame inhibits exhibitionistic impulses by disguising forbidden wishes from conscious awareness. This type of psychic vigilence renders superego disapproved wishes an inaccessibility to action (Miller, 1985).

A second influential, conceptual view of shame, includes the theories of more contemporary analysts, such as, Kohut, Knapp and Lewis. These theorists agree with the first group that the experience of shame serves as an inhibitor of exhibitionistic excitement. However, their theoretical position does not regard morality as the primary impetus in the monitoring process involved in shame. These analytic theorists contend that the major intent of shame is to retain or restore a cohesive self from over-stimulation of self-expansive strivings (Miller, 1985). The mechanisms the self uses in this regard takes the form of humiliation and embarrassed inhibition of self. This theoretical contention is based on the rationale that the adaptive attention to the whole self is more vital than are prohibiting specific acts injurious to morality.

Despite their general merit in helping us understand the inculcation of values, I believe that both these analytic positions have contributed to the confusion about what guilt and shame are and their intent as self functions. This is to say, the first analytic position is actually describing the function of guilt, not shame. The second group of theorists are accurately describing shame, but only from its defensive function. Shame, most importantly, has a creative intent, which I will demonstrate shortly.

First, however, I need to indicate certain vital dynamics in the contrast between the intentionality of guilt and shame, that theorists have tended to ignore.

The Vital Contrast between Guilt and Shame

We will all, undoubtedly, agree that there are numerous manifestations of human suffering. At various moments of life people suffer anger, jealousy, hate and fear, as well as, guilt and shame. Most human forms of suffering seem to have a loud and insistent voice. However, when we carefully discern the phenomenological components of manifestations of suffering with which we usually find the most perplexing in understanding, we find that these people have often times a great deal of difficulty finding language to communicate their painful experience. The suffering I am referring to consists of such experiences as the dreaded lost sense of self, the feeling that the self is crumbling away, without a new valued self emerging, which leads to relegating oneself to a restricted life, experiencing social isolation, regarding oneself as discredited and believing oneself to be unwelcome to others.

The painful experience to which I am alluding constitutes the distress of shame. The suffering is derived, I submit, from our reflection on our human condition and the realization that we are falling short of some expected desired state of existence. This is to say, organisms experience pain, but pain does not cause suffering until it is translated into a category of meaning (Goldberg, 1986a). This latter category is derived from assumptions and expectations conveyed to us by others. Often we do not know what we are experiencing without trying to see ourselves as others perceive us. Suffering, therefore, is an interpersonal and learned process. Socioemotionally, our state of being is intolerable to the extent that it contradicts how we have been led to believe our existence should be experienced. The realization of our failure to achieve expected and desired goals lies at the core of the experience of shame.

If our suffering emanates from learned experience, then, so too, is the means for denouncing suffering and for experiencing meaningful life events derived from the learned judgments we make about these events. This import tells us that we need to recognize those factors that serve to mitigate against learning from our feelings of shame.

There are certain dynamics which crucially differentiate shame from guilt which help to explain why shame is often the more painful of the two, and, consequently, what prevents the sufferer from staying with the experience, providing for constructive learning. The dynamics I am referring to are the mechanisms of secret pride and power, psychodynamics which strikingly contrast guilt from shame, but which have been generally overlooked by clinicians and theorists, alike.

There is pride in guilt even if this attribute is perverse. So, for example, if every son's deepest desire, as Freud purports, is to bed his mother and to replace his father, we should not fail to wonder whether Oedipus' self castigation held some perverse satisfaction in attaining "the universal dream," as Jocasta tells Oedipus, "To lay with her who bore him." This consideration is in accordance with Lacan's (1980) interpretation that despite Hamlet's ostensible loathing of his uncle, he had a perverse admiration for Claudius' skill in captivating his mother with his phallus.

Most importantly, the attribute of guilt implies that the subject has the power to do wrong and even evil. If the subject is punished it is generally because it is recognized that she is a person to be reckoned with and requires restraint. Intrapsychically, in guilt, the self "buys off" the superego by offering it a compromise. It says, in effect, "if you don't destroy or desert me I will redeem myself by agreeing to some form of punishment." In short, the subject can escape continued feelings of suffering by submitting to confession and exculpation.

Doing wrong is but one source of guilt. What of the other type of guilt? In existential guilt the subject has committed the foible of not living up to some special capacity -- attributes toward which we might well expect pride to be harbored by the transgressor. Fortunately, for the subject, this transgression generally can be erased. To the extent the subject revises his/her behavior to accord with expectations required of he/she a more vibrant life is usually assigned. Therefore, existential guilt, like transgression guilt, has the harbinger of power because both forms of guilt have reference to the subject's access to life sustaining, redemptive strategies.

In shame reaction,in sharp contrast, the subject experiences the absence of personal power and pride. This is, indeed, the problem! The subject feels transparent, empty, lacking in power and specialness. Shame, Erikson's (1963) theorizing makes rather evident, results from the experience of having one's functioning as a potentially autonomous person exposed to others prematurely -- before the subject was prepared to perform adequately. This shameful experience casts self-doubts about one's personal adequacy and evokes feelings which I refer to as "lack of legitimate entitlement" as a person. In short, the earliest experiences of shame, are a consequence of the experienced failure to satisfy ego-ideals in the eyes of admired others, which has led the subject to the belief that he/she is incapable of achieving the conditions which are necessary for physical and psychological preservation of the self. Without a firm sense of autonomy and trust in one's ability to handle oneself in the world, the spector of self-doubt falters each new venture. Therefore, in contrast to guilt, in the throes of shame, the subject experiences the lack of power and audacity to deal with the devastation of the superego and tries to hide from it. But the subject can not hide because the whole self is caught up in the feelings of helplessness. Kingston (1983) cogently indicates that

> "unlike the guilty act for which one can make reparation, the shameful act requires an alteration of the person. The person thinks I can not have done this. But I have done it, and I can not undo it because it is I."

Given the feelings of lack of power and specialness in regard to environmental oppression, the subject abnegates his/her entitlement to protest or prevent unfair treatment and abuse by others. The subject, instead, attempts to hide in order to cover the opprobrium that comes from the disturbed perception that he/she is disintegrating as a person and that he/she has not recognized capacity to articulate or to alter the process of loss and dissolution.

In short, in guilt one did (translate as, it is socially and personally recognized that the subject has the power to do) the deed or the power to withhold his/her efforts. In contrast, in shame the subject experiences the passivity, incapacity and lack of protectedness from the ravishes of hurt and disappointment which comes from a lack of legitimate entitlement.

The foregoing helps to explain why during shame, unlike guilt, hostility against the self is tolerated passively. As a result, shameful self-aggression may paralyze the self and cause feelings of being overwhelmed and unable to control one's existence.

The Constructive Aspects of Shame

In my view, shame is constructed out of a judgment of our failure to live up to our own code, our honor, values and standards. In contrast, guilt is created by a judgment of having transgressed someone else's values -- although we generally do not consciously distinguish our own code from those of our superego. Consequently, for shame to occur there has to be some aspiring to live by our own standards. The great poets, Sophocles and Shakespeare, fashioned in their dramas the message that the suffering of noble protagonists, such as Hamlet and Oedipus, came about because the codes for living by which they guided their actions, sanctioned by their society, were eventually recognized as thwarting a more noble and courageous view of human conduct. The values of the ego-ideals originally fostered from the sentiments of people Hamlet and Oedipus respected and admired, presumably begin to evolve into "conditions of self-worth" formed by their own experiences and noble vision. Developing self-worth requires, of course, self-understanding. The willingness and ability to pursue self-knowledge is generally a more arduous task than simply meeting the expectations of those who have established the basis for our feelings of culpability. In short, because of its central role in the pursuit of self-knowledge, the awareness of shame is crucial to a morality based upon autonomy and responsibility.

Shame in the Learning Situation

The learning situation is fraught with numerous factors which have the capacity of producing shame in either or, both, the learner and the teacher. Unfortunately, these factors have been poorly understood, not only because of people not readily distinguishing between shame and guilt, but also due to failing to differentiate shame from other similar seeming experiences, such as "humiliation" and "embarrassment."

Usually we think of shame as public exposure to uncomfortable aspects of our private self, which results in feelings of embarrassment or humiliation. For many people, shame is regarded as a momentary social discomfort, such as feelings of shyness in a new social situation, or looking foolish to other people because one has committed a faux pas. We take these situations as irritating, or even temporarily, painful events. We assume, however, that this embarrassment will soon be forgotten and we will simply go on about our lives as if they never happened. Unfortunately, shame -- of which the above-mentioned embarrassments are only less painful manifestations -- is a more pervasive, persistent and destructive set of emotions than commonly recognized. Indeed, it would not exaggerate the potency of shame to impute that unrecognized feelings of shame lie at the heart of the most perplexing to understand, and the most difficult to heal emotional hurts that any of us encounter in our lives.

Let us now examine shame's consequences for learning. Whereas it is necessary to recognize that the learning situation produces embarrassing and humiliating moments for its constituents, more importantly, learning produces shame. We may summarize the various factors that constitute shame in the learning situation under the rubric "learning regression" (Alonso and Rutan, 1988). To acquire difficult to comprehend new knowledge is both an emotional and a cognitive task. The learning situation may foster a return to a more primitive, helpless and dependent psychological position than the learner is comfortable with and readily is prepared to undergo. The learner feels stupid, awkward, lacking in adequacy and specialness. He/she may feel unwanted and a burden to the teacher. The student may have the desire to run away and hide from his/her incompetence. These regressive feelings I am describing are in accord with the shame of not knowing. What makes the experience especially difficult for the learner is his/her inability to communicate what is being experienced because of the inarticulateness of shame.

The Inarticulate Voice of Shame

Pursuing self-knowledge requires words and concepts to guide our pursuit. However, the shame of not knowing will not allow our painful nakedness, namely, the cast of who we are and who we seek to be, a voice. For most people shameful experience is experienced as impossible to communicate and share with another human being. No one needs persuasion that our most terrifying moments are those which can not be shared with others. They cause flight and secrecy, leaving us frightened and isolated.

Just what is the substance of the learner's inarticulate sense? These shameful moments reveal baldly to us how fragile are the conditions upon which our hopes and aspirations depend. At these moments we realize how easily and quickly our desires may be taken from us. We may even painfully recognize that our wants will be empty, even if they are satisfied.

The terror of which I speak is concerned with more than our mortal being, it includes also questions about our achievements, our reputation and our remembrance by others. In short, the terror our vulnerability bares has to do with the fear of erasure or distortion of all that which we worked, struggled for and created -- in a word, the meaning of our lives (Goldberg, 1986).

Some mortals experience this terror more acutely than do others. Those who experience this terror most profoundly are those conflicted with serious impediments in their ability and willingness to learn.

It is vital in learning situations of importance that the learner is able to reconcile the intention of his/her endeavor to acquire new knowledge with his/her assumptions about how the new knowledge relates to his/her quest for meaning. Without this existential and epistemological struggle we suffer the shame of not knowing what we are aiming for in our existence and what are the conditions which will enhance our quest.

In the workshop I conducted during the "Teaching Psychology" conference, the participants and I discussed how the classroom instructor can constructively utilize the shame of not knowing to facilitate the student's existential search for meaning. Among our recommendations were:

1. The teacher's use of disclosed presence and self-disclosure in order to share his/her own previous difficult and shameful experiences in trying to acquire meaningful learning. Such interactions foster a more collegial relationship between student and tutor than that of an authoritarian figure to an innocent learner;

2. The use of positive connotation by the teacher in fostering trust, instilling hope and optimism in the student's learning attitudes. Metaphorically, positive connotations highlight the glass as half full,

rather than half empty. It accentuates what is good and hopeful rather than focusing on what is adversive in the student's attitude and performance;

3. The teacher focusing on the emotional and attitudinal requirements and reactions to the learning task, as well as, the cognitive. Before the student is able to think critically, he/she must be able to feel and care responsively;

4. It is important to encourage the student's suspended judgments of his/her own performance. It is also valuable to help the learner "not know." This is to say, to leave his/her knowledge open to revision and transformation;

5. To help the student's full unfolding of the necessary emotional, intellectual and existential faculties in order to learn, the teacher should develop skills in the use of paradigmatic, as well as, conventional teaching practices. Paradigmatic skills are strategies based on the use of nonlinear thinking and the realization that the variegation of human experience is fostered by an appreciation of life's paradoxes.

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TEACHING PSYCHOLOGY OF WOMEN TO INNER-CITY COLLEGE STUDENTS

TEACHING PSYCHOLOGY TO INNER-CITY COLLEGE STUDENTS

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Dr. Linda Anderson-Barboza in "Teaching Psychology of Women to Inner-City College Students" describes the dynamics of teaching this course to predominately Black and Hispanic women. Dr. Anderson-Barboza leads her students through discussion, debate and essay to examine those problems intimately associated with living in an urban city including: race and color, homophobia and homosexuality, abortion, drug abuse and battered and abused wives and children. Instead of crying, students learn how to handle these problems

The joys of serendipity were never more pronounced as in my recent experience teaching a psychology of women course. The diverse student body that exists at Hostos Community College is as much responsible for my discoveries as anything else. The experience brought rewarding challenges and helped to broaden my perception of my role as a professor. It also prompted me to make significant changes in the basic syllabus. The strategies I have had to adopt to meet the special needs of the kinds of students who enroll in such a course offer some insight into the changing demands of today's educational environment.

While the institution where I teach is radically different from traditional colleges, there are still many general lessons to learn from my encounter there. Those lessons are critical for faculty anywhere since many colleges already contend with student bodies demographically similar to Hostos, and probably have begun to wrestle with the many problems this poses for teaching.

Hostos, is the only bilingual college within the City University of New York. Both English and Spanish dominant students attend the course, which is taught in English. Not surprisingly, the language problem creates other problems. Classroom participation is disproportionately dominated by the English speaking and bilingual students. However, the risk-taking that communications in their second language requires, is openly supported both to boost confidence and give a sense of security. When needed, spontaneous translations by bilingual students will convey the

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intended message. When Spanish dominant students are unable to express a complex idea in written English they are permitted to write in Spanish.

This approach is necessary in teaching the psychology of women course because the major goal is self study and developing the student's voice, in addition to understanding the theories. Their voice is strengthened through the use of one weekly written assignment that focuses on an aspect of self discovery. Perhaps the most important part of this self discovery is the examination of sex roles. Invariably, the course offers the first opportunity for both male and female students to ~~express~~ their sex role socialization.

In addition to a college textbook that includes the major theoretical issues on psychology of women, "Women and Self Esteem" by Linda T. Sanford and Mary E. Donovan is required reading for the course. This book examines the patterns of life experiences encountered by women of all backgrounds. The book is designed so that readers can explore their own experience at each developmental stage. Students are given written exercises from the end of each chapter that urge the examination of issues like early sexual learning, role models, religious influences and its impact on self-esteem. Male students write about their experiences growing up male and the issues around identity and self esteem that they confront.

The weekly writing and reading assignments initially intimidates students. Nevertheless, after they purchase the book and begin reading it, most students seem to identify immediately with the issues. Many students finish reading this book before the course requires and some report lending it to their mothers, sisters, other relatives and friends.

The students are challenged to fully participate in the classroom discussion. Most rewarding is that the voice of the students over the period of the course is greatly enhanced. From all indicators, it would seem that as the texture of the voice becomes more focused, richer, and stronger so does their level of self esteem. Not only does their writing show improvement but their enhanced self image and attitude about themselves is often documented in their writing.

Psychology textbooks do not explore issues of race, ethnicity, and class in depth. It is the challenge and the responsibility of the educator to consistently incorporate in the curriculum the extent to which these issues relate to each theme presented. The need for attention to these matters are integral to the increased self awareness and self esteem of Hostos students. The issue of race as it impacts American society is especially confusing to students born outside the United States. Students of African descent from the Spanish speaking Caribbean and Latin America are often traumatized by the reality of racial segregation and the strict color lines that exist as a result of the history of slavery in the United States. Because of this, the need to explore issues around color are intimately related to self image and self esteem.

Most black American students and many students from the English speaking Caribbean voice a strong need to discuss the issue of race as it relates to their sense of themselves. Their initial discussion of the issue often enables the other students to bring up their own concerns.

Apparently, many students have never had a forum where they could talk about their feelings growing up as a person of color in the Caribbean, Latin America, or North America. Current magazine articles that focus on gender, race, ethnicity and class trigger much of this discussion.

Students sometimes read their writing in class. Some students will volunteer to read a specific excerpt from their weekly assignment while others may offer to read it in its entirety. Since many of the students do not wish to publically share some of their feelings and experiences, the students often vote to have some of their writings anonymously read by the instructor. In so doing, sensitive issues can be raised without identifying students.

Social skills about constructive criticism is another area the course explores. Together, we discover some very poignant moments during these class sessions. Students are asked to refrain from insensitive or negative comments when responding to a personal experience or viewpoint of fellow classmates to keep the classroom climate as nonjudgemental as possible. This is especially critical when discussing issue like abortion, where students often have powerful feelings as a result of cultural, and religious influences as well as their own personal experiences.

Abortion is a particularly painful subject to students who seem to have unresolved conflicts related to their own abortions. Some cry when they describe their feelings. Knowing that abortion has it s detractors, I will ask, "Is there anything anyone can say that will be helpful to this student." This is one way of eliciting support for students in need of it from those who are able to give it. It's too delicate a moment to listen to comments of rejection, since it is precisely the internalization of these feelings that prevents the conflicted students from expressing themselves in the first place. Invariably the youngest students seem to have the greatest difficulty, and those who often support them are the older ones. The generational difference is of immense help in this situation. In some ways the older ones become surrogate parents to the younger students.

Not surprisingly, the dropout rate from the course for males is disproportionately higher than for females. Inevitably, some men will drop out after attending one or two sessions. Their usual refrain is: "What does this course have to do with me?" Some of the men are in the course by default because they have been closed out of other courses. That, naturally is a set up in itself.

One effective intervention that enabled a male student to complete the course is worth recounting. He confessed, initially, that he just didn't know what to do with all these women: he felt very uncomfortable. Since he was open about his feelings, I encouraged him to talk or write about his ambivalence. Inherent in the discussion was what it felt like being a minority within a minority. I shared with him my own experience as a minority within a minority in various professional settings. I emphasized that the pain of such experiences often benefits our personal growth. It provided me an opportunity to have a different perspective of myself as well as viewing the world from a different perspective. Although I acknowledged the anxiety one often feels, I discussed possible stress coping mechanisms available. While I tried to validate his sense of reality, I also challenged him. After all, wasn't self esteem an issue with which both males and females had to grapple?

Gay and lesbian students constitute another minority within a minority. Although it is usually a small group, they represent a distinct voice. These students tend to remain silent about their sexual preference during class discussions, but many of them will write about it. I am sometimes given permission to read aloud their stories without identifying the name of the student. This allows the class to gain another personal perspective.

Surprisingly, traditional college age students constitute another minority attending this course. That's not so strange as it seems when one examines the patterns of college enrollment in the Hispanic community. Hispanic females from the community around Hostos College, many of whom are recent immigrants, delay college until after motherhood. In this setting, the traditional college age students can be intimidated in discussions of significant life experience. Most are active listeners, but some are unable, or not ready to use their voice fully. Many are concerned with their language difficulties in English and are often embarrassed to speak. Some will preface a remark with "I'm sorry, I don't speak so well". This apologetic attitude is consistently challenged to reassure and convince students to feel positive about themselves.

I discovered that many of the students who remain silent are often those who have suffered traumatic experiences. Others are simply shy or have anxieties about speaking English. To help these groups, I introduced what we call the "buddy system". Students who are already clear and articulate and warm in their manner are paired with those who need some support. Sometimes it was necessary to help students select their "buddies" but most students picked their own partners. They exchanged telephone numbers and often had contacts outside of class. They took on minor responsibilities for each other: like finding out why someone was absent, or articulating something that the "buddy" found particularly difficult or painful. The students found this system extremely helpful. To some of them, it resembled the extended family system from which they came. To others this kinship filled a void in their lives at Hostos.

For several semesters I experimented with a team-teaching model. My colleague and I agree that it worked successfully in this course. For one thing, we learned a great deal from each other. But even more important, the students felt that they were getting more. Certainly, they receive more individual attention. During each class both instructors participate; one may lecture or present a topic for discussion while the other may add information or a different perspective. The roles alternate from class to class.

Team teaching not only forces one to spend more time planning for a course because of the coordination required, but we felt compelled to evaluate the course's impact on the students, as well as on ourselves.

Team teaching is an exciting and challenging way of improving ones teaching skills as long as one is comfortable with constructive criticism and has a colleague one can work with comfortably. Ones own process is enhanced by its proximity to the other faculty member. The similarities and differences of pedagogy and style stimulate both the students and the teachers involved.

Both an individual instructor model as well as a team teaching model, are filled with rewards and potential difficulties. Regardless of the model employed, the ultimate challenge is often creating a fresh and stimulating approach to the material which will motivate both the students and the instructor.

Overall, the experience teaching a Psychology of Women course at Hostos proved serendipitous in more ways than I could have hoped for. Each new discovery took me, sometimes intuitively sometimes investigatively, to new insights about teaching. The challenge of incorporating students experiences into the curriculum in order to make more meaningful as well as integrating this into existing and innovative psychological theories is ongoing and rewarding.

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Title : A Videotaped Simulation of Ethical Issues as a Tool in Teaching Research Ethics to Psychology Undergraduates

A Viodetaped Simulation of Ethical Issues as a Tool in Teaching Research Ethics to Psychology Undergraduates

Ethical concerns are as old as organized society. Indeed, ethics are integral bases for a successul and just society. Ethics education was required throughout much of the history of the modern university. However, the rise of positivism and a variety of other factors led to ethics courses becoming specialized and optional (Rosen & Copley, 1979). Interest in the place of ethics education in the university curriculum reemerged during the last twenty years and has recently benefitted by the rising public concern with such important ethical issues as organ transplants and other heroic medical technologies, biotechnology and genetic engineering, and the crisis in confidence associated with government and business scandals. The recent revelations of misconduct in scientific research provide another impetus toward more systematic efforts in ethics education.

In psychology, research ethics provide a key nexus for introducing students to ethical concerns. While they are all too often still ignored, both introductory texts and those for specific content areas increasingly include the topic of research ethics. However, coverage is usually brief and superficial. A problem for the classroom teacher of psychology is to explore these issues in a way that is simultaneously understandable to undergraduates, makes efficient use of limited classroom time, and stimulates interest in, and knowledge of, the very real dilemma that confronts the psychological researcher in pursuing knowledge of theoretical and practical import while protecting the rights of subjects.

This presentation described (and illustrated) a half-hour (34 minute) videotape, Ethics in Psychological Research, and a set of post tape examination questions developed by the author that attempt to meet these goals. The tape briefly discusses the need for, and the recent history of, ethical concerns in research with human subjects. It defines "ethics", discusses the concept of ethical dilemma, and describes the public outrage at revelations of dangerous medical research done without the subject's knowledge or consent (including the Tuskeegee Syphillis Study). The emergence of federal and state regulations designed to protect the rights of human subjects is noted.

The APA Ethical Principles in the Conduct of Research With Human Participants (1982) are presented graphically in a summary form. The risk versus benefit approach that underlies these principles is explained.

The program then incorporates three demonstrations taken from actual research studies to illustrate general and specific ethical issues. The demonstrations are sequenced to illustrate increasing levels of potential ethical concern and focus on three specific issues: deception, the potential harm to the subject of exposure to intense psychological stress, and the issue of invasion of privacy. The first demonstration employs an Asch type conformity situation while the second illustrates the original Milgram obedience procedure and the third cites a study that unobtrusively observed the effects of invasions of personal space in a lavatory (this procedure is described but is not actually demonstrated).

A variety of procedures for resolving ethical issues are presented, including: informed consent, debriefing and maintenance of anonymity/confidentiality. The tape ends with a brief summary and cites the need to protect the rights and dignity of human subjects while pursuing data of value to science and society.

A set of post program examination questions made up of multiple choice, fill-in and essay items can be used to test the viewer's comprehension of both general principles and specific issues in research ethics. A brief Instructor's Guide that offers suggestions for stimulating class discussion has been prepared. The guide also provides references to additional source material and suggests differential strategies for incorporating this topic into a vareiety of undergraduate courses, including Introductory Psychology, methdology courses, and others. Persons interested in using the tape can write the author to make arrangements.

Using Tests to Teach Validity and Reliability Concepts to Non-Psychology Majors

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INTRODUCTION

Teachers of research and statistics courses are well aware that they must make the content of their courses palatable to non-psychology majors; at the same time, they must maintain the integrity of the concepts or principles being presented. This is clearly true when confronted with the task of covering test validity and reliability. While the definitions of the various types of test validity and reliability are fairly straightforward, the materials have a tendency to be pretty dry and lackluster unless "fleshed out" by means of concrete and interesting examples. This paper describes several demonstrations which provide hands-on experience with test validity and reliability while exposing student to "interesting psychological ideas."

PROCEDURE

Materials used in this demonstration include the "Quick and Dirty Personality Test" (origin unknown); the Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1981); and Form Y-1 of the State Trait Anxiety Inventory (Spielberger, 1983). This discussion lays out a "basic recipe" from which a number of interesting variations might be produced.

Quick and Dirty Personality Test (QAD)

The "Quick and Dirty" (QAD) Personality Test may have another name. To the best of my knowledge, it has been handed down orally over the years and is a "public domain instrument." The test is a very simple (presumably tongue-in-cheek) instrument which claims to enlighten its user concerning the self-concept, mate preferences, and sexual fantasies of the examinee. It serves as an excellent "ice-breaker" and inevitably ropes students into the discussion.

The activity is introduced as a simple measure of several personality characteristics. Students are invited to write down answers to three brief questions; they are encouraged to keep their answers to themselves until the meaning of their answers is explained. Because of the "sensitive nature" of the test, students are informed that their answers will not be handed in. The three questions are as follows:

(1) Think of your **favorite color** (write it down). Now, list the first three adjectives that come to mind when you think of this color.

(2) Think of your **favorite pet** (write it down). As before, list the first three adjectives that come to mind.

(3) Finally, think of your **favorite body of water** (write it down). Again, list three adjectives that come to mind.

When everyone has completed their lists, the following explanation is given:

(1) the three adjectives describing your favorite color are generally considered to be aspects of your self-concept, i.e., traits which you think characterize your "real self."

(2) the three adjectives describing your favorite pet are considered to be character traits which you would find desirable in a prospective mate, spouse, or lover.

(3) the three adjectives describing your favorite body of water are considered to be your image of the ideal sexual experience.

The class's hilarity usually rises with the illumination of each question's meaning. A moment or two is allowed as students share their deepest secrets with classmates. When laughter has subsided, it is usually fairly simple to point out the importance of distinguishing what a test pretends to measure and what it actually measures. In addition, the "projective nature" of the test provides an opportunity (if you wish) to discuss the different types of instruments which exist and what the advantages and disadvantages of each are.

Bem Sex Role Inventory (SRI)

The Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1981) was developed as a means of measuring psychological masculinity and femininity. It consists of 60 personality traits, 20 of which are judged to be stereotypically feminine (e.g., sympathetic, warm, gentle); 20, stereotypically masculine (e.g., aggressive, athletic, individualistic); and 20, neutral (e.g., happy, reliable, truthful). Subjects are instructed to rate themselves on a 7-point scale (1=never or almost never true of oneself; 7=always or almost always true of oneself) for each of the 60 traits. The long form takes 10-15 minutes to complete; the first 30 items may be used as a short form of the inventory and may be a "superior instrument (Payne, 1985). The SRI may be obtained in sets of 25 for $3 per set from Consulting Psychologists Press.

I usually have the class complete the short form of the SRI in class. When they have completed it, I take about 10 minutes to explain Bem's basic concept on androgyny and how it represents a reaction to the assumption of other scales that masculinity and femininity are two ends of a unipolar dimension. The explanation is kept brief and general, and students are usually very interested (especially since they have completed the inventory and are curious about what their scores will mean).

Scoring the SRI is simple and straightforward, so that computing scores for masculine and feminine scales can easily be done in class; or, if preferred, students can take the inventory the week before. I generally find it better to administer and score the SRI during the same class since students' curiosity about what the SRI measures remains high. There are two alternative methods for classifying respondents; the simpler of the two involves comparing one's raw scores for each scale to median scores for normative samples of college students (these can be found in the manual). Based on whether their scores fall above or below the median on either or both of the scales, students classify themselves in one of the following four categories:

(1) masculine (above average on the masculine scale, below average on the feminine scale);

(2) feminine (above average on the feminine scale, below average on the masculine scale);

(3) androgynous (above average on both masculine and feminine scales);

(4) undifferentiated (below average on both masculine and feminine scales).

This job completed, a tally is taken of how many students fall into each category (see Table 1).

Table 1

Subjects Classified in Each of Bem's Four Categories

(1978 Stanford Normative Sample, Short Form, Median Split Method)

	Traditional	Reversed	Androgynous	Undifferentiated
Females	24	16	37	24
Males	33	16	24	28

To illustrate construct validity, I raise the following problem: what does how one responds to this instrument have to do with how one behaves in real life? Bem (1975) discusses in very straightforward terms her efforts to draw relationships between SRI categories and sex stereotypical behavior. She reviews a series of ingenious studies which suggest that androgynous individuals exhibited adaptive behavior in situations calling for either traditionally masculine or traditionally feminine traits, while appropriately sex-typed subjects were limited to adaptive responding only in those situations where their particular traits were appropriate. Specifically, androgynous individuals were more likely to show assertive and independent behaviors than individuals classified as feminine; they were also more likely to exhibit playful, affectionate, and sympathetic behavior than were individuals classified as masculine (see Figure 1). Students are encouraged to imagine how they would respond in each of the experimental situations.

I add the caveat that a good deal of research has qualified, compromised, and illuminated Bem's work during the past 13 years (Huston, 1983). In its beginnings, however, it serves as an interesting and excellent example of how scales are constructed and empirically validated.

State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI)

The STAI (Form Y) measures subjects' feelings of anxiety (apprehension, tension, or nervousness) from two different angles. Form Y-1 (State Anxiety Scale) evaluates how anxious the subject feels at the time the test is administered; Form Y-2 (Trait Anxiety Scale) evaluates how anxious subjects generally feel. Each scale consists of 20 items. Subjects are instructed to use a 4-point scale to rate how strongly they experience each feeling (1=not at all; 4=very much so) for the State Anxiety Scale and to rate how often they experience each feeling (1=almost never; 4=almost always) for the Trait Anxiety Scale. The test is easily self-administered; each subscale takes roughly 5 minutes to complete. The STAI can be purchased by professionals at a cost of $5.00 per package of 25 from Consulting Psychologists Press.

I usually administer only the State Anxiety Scale, either at the beginning of the course or the week before test validity and reliability is discussed. Because many students (and especially non-psychology majors) cringe at the thought of statistics and research courses, a discussion of anxiety and how it is measured is perceived to be timely and relevant. Prior to discussing class results and giving students their scores, I briefly explain the distinction between state and trait anxiety as outlined by Spielberger (1983). Students are usually more than willing to spend several minutes on an apparently non-statistical tangent. Once the concept of anxiety is analyzed, the problem or how anxiety might be measured is addressed. Physiological and behavioral indicators are explored. Finally, the concept of a self-report inventory is addressed, and the various properties of the State Anxiety scale are analyzed.

One advantage to having students take the STAI in advance is that data can be analyzed and graphic illustrations can be created. To demonstrate internal consistency, I usually compute subscores for the first and second halves of the scale, calculate the correlation coefficient, and produce a scatterplot of the values. Presenting the scatterplot in class allows each student to picture in very concrete terms "where she stands" relative to the rest of the class and how she contributes to the split-half reliability of the test (see Figure 2). For more advanced classes, an item analysis of the 20 items can be performed and items with lower item-total correlations can be identified and discussed.

While test-retest reliability could be determined, my guess is that most students won't want to complete the test twice. I usually point to data reported in the manual and ask students to explain why the correlation coefficient for the State Anxiety Scale is lower than that for the Trait Anxiety Scale (Table 2). Students usually figure out that test-retest reliability is an appropriate issue when instruments measure character traits which are more or less stable, but that they may be inappropriate when evaluating instruments measuring transitory states.

Table 2

Test-retest Reliability for the STAI Scales

	30 Days	60 Days
T-Anxiety		
Males	.71	.68
Females	.75	.65
S-Anxiety		
Males	.62	.51
Females	.34	.36

A discussion of concurrent validity can be found in the STAI manual. I usually conduct my own concurrent validity study using a somewhat different measure of anxiety ("stress vulnerability"). Once again, a scattergram can be generated and students get a feel for what constitutes a high correlation between two variables. If it suits the instructor's purposes, other research concepts can be added: reversal of items, percentile scores and norm-referencing, controlling for social desirability.

ASSESSMENT

While I have no data related to student evaluations of this activity, their in-class reactions have always been enthusiastic and positive. The same underlying motive that drives people to read their horoscopes makes students curious about any number or value on a test which might shed light on who they are.

A final note concerns potential ethical problems in using the SRI and STAI for non-assessment, non-research purposes. A careful reading of the APA's standards for educational and psychological testing (APA, 1985) will point to a number of issues which must be considered prior to conducting this activity. These issues include qualifications of the user, test security, informed consent, confidentiality, and careful interpretation of test results. When these and other issues are considered and addressed, the use of these two tests for purposes of illustration is consistent with the standards set forth by APA.

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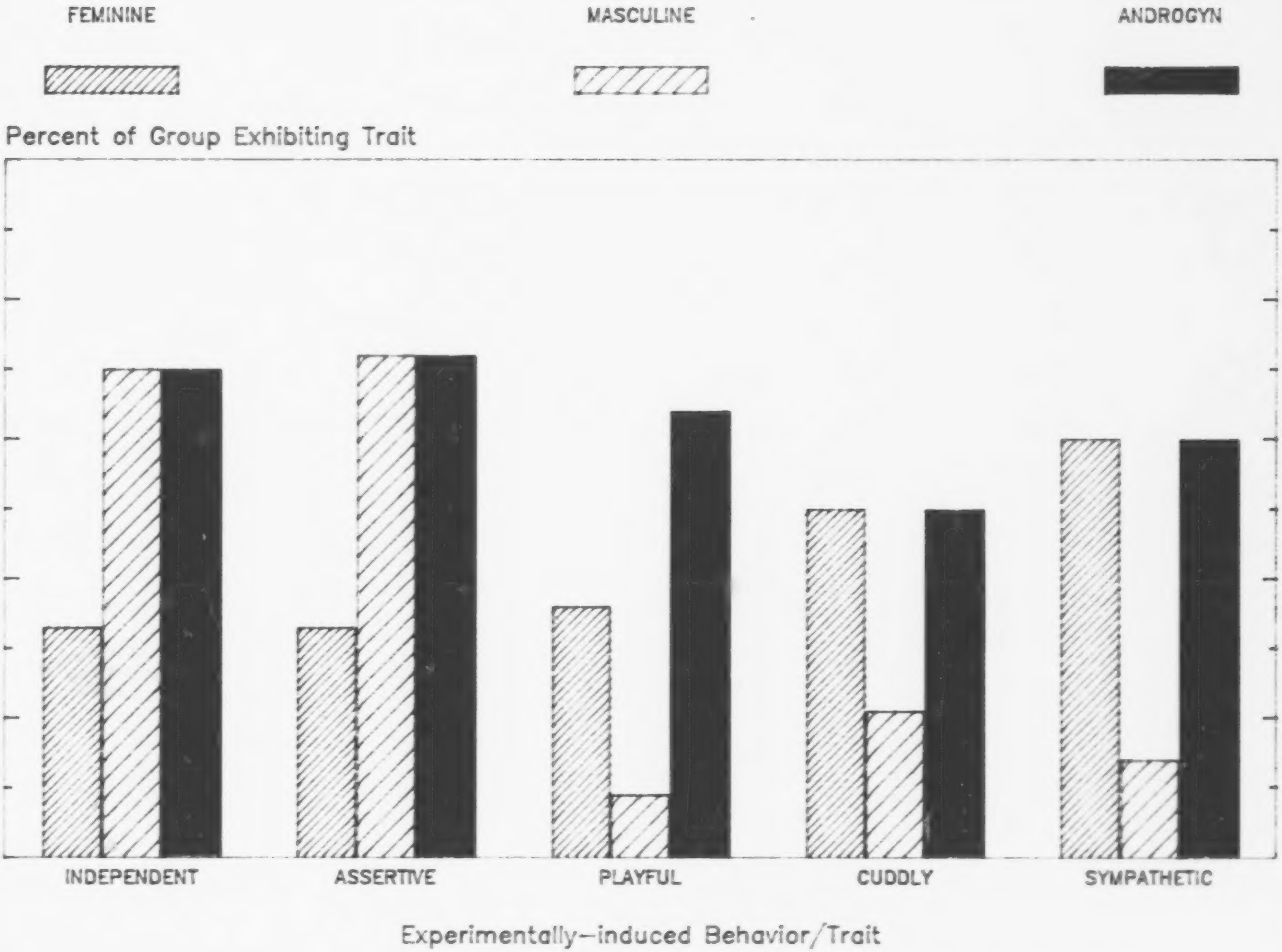
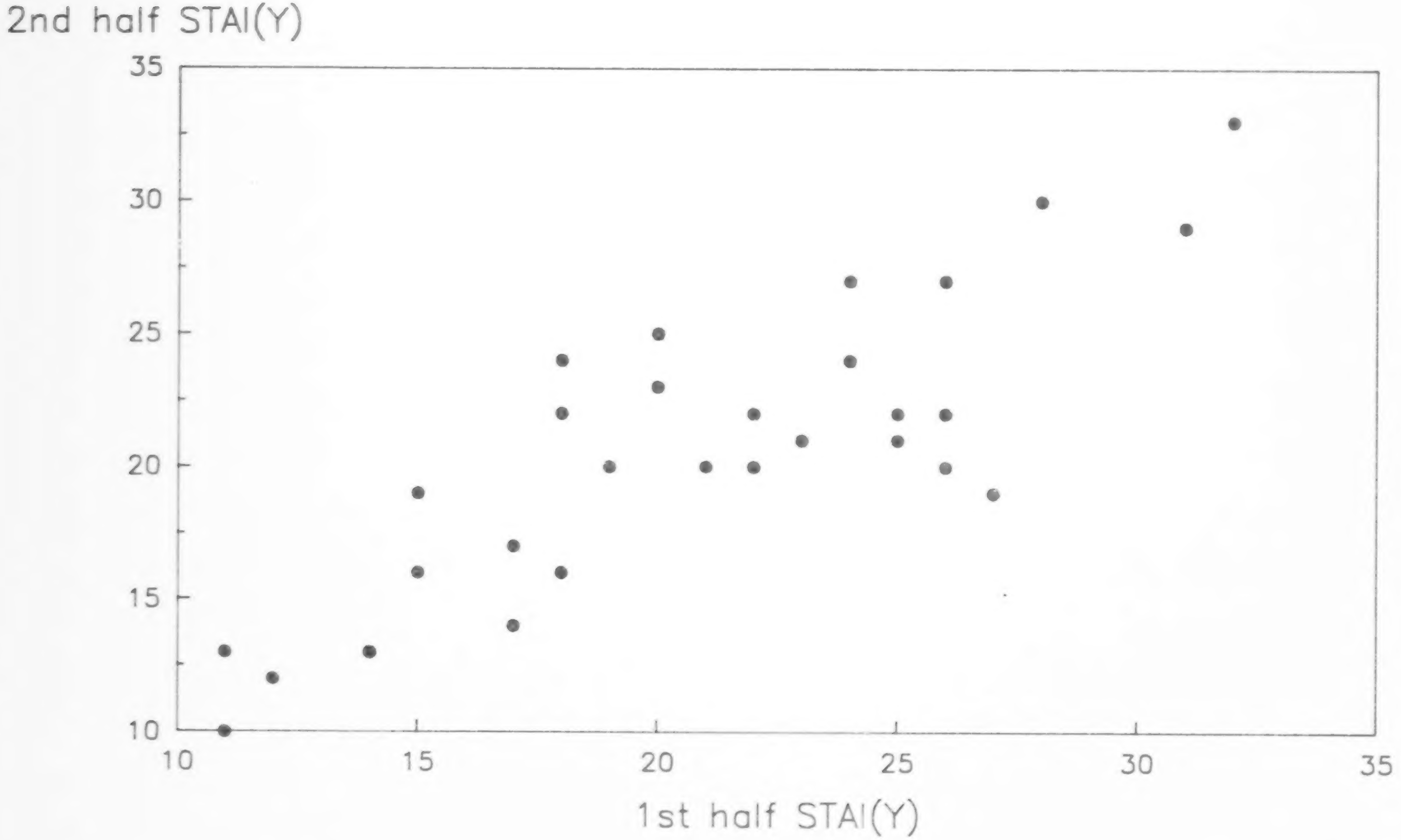
Construct Validity – BSRI

Behavioral Correlates



Split-half Reliability - STAI(Y)



- r = .86; Mn = 20; SD = 6

GETTING UNDERGRADUATES INVOLVED IN PSYCHOLOGICAL RESEARCH

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I. INTRODUCTION

Psychology is defined as the scientific study of behavior and mental processes. Using this definition the foundation of psychology is research. We feel that a comprehensive undergraduate program in psychology necessitates student involvement in research. In this presentation we will highlight the advantages and disadvantages of student research, provide examples from our own courses, and outline important considerations in implimenting a research program with undergraduates.

II. ADVANTAGES

1. PSYCHOLOGY AS A SCIENCE

Doing research in psychology provides undergraduates with a better understanding of the scientific principles underlying the discipline. Even though psychology textbooks review scientific methodology and cite numerous research examples, students often do not acknowledge psychology as a science. Participation in research causes them to more readily understand its scientific nature.

2. DIRECT EXPERIENCE WITH EXPERIMENTATION

Students who only learn about research through textbook examples do not usually understand or appreciate the complexity of experimentation. They memorize the necessary steps, but do not fully comprehend the trial and error nature of resarch or the length of time necessary to design and conduct an experiment. Students who conduct their own well-designed and rigorously controlled studies gain a more realistic view of the research process.

3. AN UNDERSTANDING OF EXPERIMENTAL CONTROL

In this same vein - students who are actually designing their own experiments learn the importance of experimental control. Random selection and assignment, controlling for extraneous variables, and experimenter bias are no longer concepts to be defined on a test. Students must apply these directly to their own research.

SKILLS

Students who do research also gain several valuable skills which are transferable to other courses, to graduate school experiences, and to careers outside psychology.

4. STATISTICAL SKILLS / COMPUTER SKILLS

Students learn how to use and apply statistics and computer software packages in order to analyze their data.

5. ORAL AND WRITTEN COMMUNICATION SKILLS

Since research must involve the communication of one's results in written and/or oral form, students develop and hone these very important skills.

We both require written research reports in APA style in most of our courses. We also encourarge oral communication of the research. Many of our students have presented papers at undergraduate research conferences or before the members of the department.

6. PROBLEM-SOLVING SKILLS

Designing and conducting an experiment requires creative problem-solving. When students transfer their experimental hypotheses into an actual design, they are proposing a method to provide answers to a specific question. In order to create a well-designed and controlled study, the student must review the literature, consider several options, and determine whether the design is valid and reliable. They -- unknown to many of them -- develop skills of problem-solving and critical thinking.

7. PROJECT FOLLOW-THROUGH

Another important transferable skill that students learn when doing research is the ability to follow a project through from its initial development to final completion. Students begin with hypothesis development, move to the design stage, collect data, and then interpret and communicate their results. Having responsibility for a complete project like this is an experience which is valued in many professions.

INTERPERSONAL ADVANTAGES

8. LEADERSHIP SKILLS / INTERPERSONAL SKILLS

Involving students in group research projects provides opportunities for the development of leadership and interpersonal skills. This has obvious benefits for most work and administrative settings, as well as providing students with experience in research collaboration. In order to produce and complete a quality product - they must learn to ignore personality differences and work for the common good. Though sometimes frustrating, it is a necessary lesson to learn.

9. RESPONSIBILITY

In both group and more obviously individual research projects, students are given a considerable amount of responsibility. Stimulus materials must be completed, subjects must be run, data must be analyzed; all by the students. They learn very quickly that if one small part is not done or not done correctly, the project can fall apart. Most motivated students take their work very seriously and display a great deal of responsibility.

10. INCREASE FACULTY-STUDENT INTERACTION

Student research projects require a great deal of faculty supervision and consultation. This provides a considerably different pedagogical atmosphere from the traditional classroom setting and one that serves to develop a closer relationship beteween professor and student.

11. GRADUATE SCHOOL PREPARATION

As the competition for acceptance to the top grad school programs increases, undergraduate research experience has become a necessary qualification. Thus - psychology departments are obligated to provide students with research opportunities.

12. FACILITATES FACULTY RESEARCH

Undergraduate students can also help faculty in conducting their own research. Students who are well-trained and have a good understanding of statistics and experimental design can aid faculty research by collecting data and doing basic data analysis. At small colleges with no gradate program -- undergrads can participate in faculty research as grad students would.

13. PROMOTES INTEREST AND ENTHUSIASM IN PSYCHOLOGY

Involvement in research stimulates interest and enthusiasm in psychology. Students discover that research can be fun and exciting. This motivates than to apply to graduate programs in order to further their education in psychology.

III. DISADVANTAGES

There are a number of disadvantages in getting students involved in ressearch. Some of these problems are caused by the students and some by the situation. You will find it much easier if you are prepared for these problems.

1. IRRESPONSIBILITY

Some undergraduates are irresponsible and may not show up for their appointments with subjects. So you end up with subjects around with no experimenter. You must stress the importance of not only showing up, but getting to the lab before the subjects arrive.

2. NOT GETTING WORK DONE ON TIME

Some students will not get the work done on time. They may be scheduled to run subjects on Monday afternoon, and show up on Monday morning to tell you that they didn't get the response sheets finished or they forgot to do some part of the preparation.

3. SOCIAL LOAFING

If students are working in a group, one member may not do his/her part. This either holds up the rest or others take over for the social loafer. In either case this breeds resentment among the students.

4. LACK OF CONFIDENCE

Many students lack confidence and they just cannot work independently. This results in numerous frantic late-night phone calls to your house to ask sometimes trivial questions.

5. SLOPPINESS

Some students will fail to take the task seriously, or will just be lazy or sloppy about the work. This can result in several serious problems. One problem is errors in data collection: sloppiness, carelessness, or down right faking the data. Another problem is in the student's understanding of the instructions. The student experimenter may either misunderstand, or simply forget, the instructions and rather than asking for clarification, he/she may guess how to run the experiment. Some students will find the instructions too tedious and take "short-cuts." Some will just be sloppy in the way they run subjects, assuming that it "really doesn't matter" that much how the experiment is run.

6. HANDLING OF EQUIPMENT

Sloppiness or carelessness with equipment is another major problem. Students can easily damage expensive equipment by careless handling. It is important to carefully train students not just how to work the equipment but also what to do when something goes wrong with the equipment.

7. EXPERIMENTER BIAS

There are also problems that result from students interacting with subjects. The students may have a very high experimenter bias effect. They often express too much emotion in front of the subject: laughing, giggling, smirking, egging the subject on, or expressing disappointment, anger, disgust, or frustration toward the subject. Again careful pre-training of student experimenters is very important.

8. SUBJECT CONFIDENTIALITY

Another problem is the violation of subject confidentiality. Students may discuss particular subjects with friends, roommates, or later subjects.

9. TIME CONSTRAINTS

There are also a number of problems that result from the situation. One of these is time constraints. One semester is usually not enough to go from the idea, to full literature search, to do enough pretests, to "working out the bugs", and actually conducting the experiment. As a result students often don't get to see all that goes on from start to finish. This is often frustrating to the students. It can also be frustrating to you in that when you are working on a long project you may have to retrain new students each semester.

10. STUDENT FRUSTRATION

A final problem you may face is that students get frustrated very easily, especially if they put in a great deal of time and effort and don't get the expected results.

Many of these problems can be addressed by very careful planning on the part of the faculty member. However, this may give students a misleading view of science. Ideally one would like to try to find a careful balance between the real-world frustrations and effort involved without making research look so difficult that you turn students off. Many times a stepwise introduction to research is called for: each year giving students more involvement and more responsibility so that they will get to enjoy the excitement and reward of success early on before facing the frustration of failure.

IV. SPECIFIC COURSE EXAMPLES

1. INTRODUCTORY PSYCHOLOGY

It is important to introduce psychology students to research in the beginning courses. There are several ways that this can be done. Computer simulations of classic experiments provide an easy and efficient introduction to experimentation. We have used this technique with short-term memory, perception, and social cognition research.

Students also gain exposure to research through classroom demonstrations, participation as subjects, and conducting simple experiments on members of the class.

4. SENSATION AND PERCEPTION AND COGNITIVE PROCESSES

The projects in these intermediate courses vary in how many people work together and how much control you exert over the topic choice. Students may work as individuals, in small groups of two to five students, or the whole class may work as a group on one project. There are a variety of ways you can control the topic choices. At one extreme, you can have one big class project that is all carefully laid out and you simply assign students to different tasks. Another way to keep strict control is to have a list of prepared experiments (experiments that you have completely worked out) and let students pick from this list. A somewhat less controlled option is to have a list of topics from which students can choose. You are providing good topics, but it is up to the students to design their own experiment. At the other extreme you can give students complete freedom of choice with little or no guidelines. The advantages and disadvantages of each of these options are discussed below.

The first option is to have the whole class work on one big project. I have found this to be successful when you have a small class of fifteen or less. You need to provide readings and references and use stimuli that have already been prepared. The students can collect and analyze the data and then write up individual papers. This does not allow for much creativity on the students' part; however, the project is a good basis for class discussions. Your choice of project is really critical for getting students involved.

This option can fail miserably under the wrong conditions. In a larger class there may be too many students who do not do their share of the work, or they hand things in late and hold up the rest of the class. Students are not good at constructing stimuli or following complicated instructions. If you have too many different people running subjects you run the risk of massive experimenter biases and faking the data. In summary the major criterion for this option is to have a small class in which each student feels involved and responsible.

The second option is to have prepared experiments that can be done by an individual or small group. In addition to having students write up their results in a paper, you might also have them share their results by giving a class presentation. The advantages of this option are that students are likely to have sucessful research experiences and since you know what to expect the papers are relatively easy to grade. The disadvantages of this option are that it involves a great deal more work on your part to prepare all these experiments, the students do not get to be creative or even think for themselves, and after several years it can be boring to read papers on the same experiments.

Probably the most successful option is to provide the students with a list of "good" topics. Once again students can work as individuals or in small groups. They can do both papers and class presentations. A "good" topic is one for which you know you have equipment, you know the library has references, and you know past students have had success. Students can start with a literature search and then design and run their own experiment. The advantages to this option are that students can be creative and do some thinking on their own. Students are generally more involved and interested when they make a choice. Students learn about experimental design and usually about the pitfalls in running experiments. In addition, you may get some wonderful suprises in that students may come up with some really interesting and important questions. The major disadvantages are that students can sometimes come up with trivial hypotheses or poor designs and they become easily frustrated if their experiments don't work.

The final option is to let students freely choose any topic. This seems to be the least successful option. Usually students just do not know where to begin. They often choose topics that are too vague or too big or for which you have no equipment. They may also end up choosing topics that are inappropriate for class. Most students need some guidelines for choosing topics.

3. SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Since the social psychology course attracts both majors and nonmajors, there is considerable diversity among the class in terms of statistical preparation, interest, and motivation. Consequently, I provide students with the option of writing a library research paper or conducting their own research. Many students choose to do simple observation studies or surveys.

4. EXPERIMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY

Our department offers three experimental courses. Each focuses on research in a different area of psychology- animal learning, senation/perception and cognition, and social. Statistics and an advanced course in the topic area are prerequisites for all three courses. Since the research requirements are similar across all three courses, we will only focus on the experimental social course.

Students are required to complete four to five short laboratory assignments which are usually conducted during class time. Most of the projects are done in groups of two to four. Students are given one week to complete an APA style report outlining their findings. Examples of these assignments are summarized below:

Basic hypothesis development and experimental design

Students must develop an original testable hypothesis and transfer this to an appropriate experimental design.

Naturalistic Observation study

The class chooses a behavior to study on campus. Although this provides them with experience in generating research topics and determining how behaviors should be measured, it sometimes results in the selection of trivial topics. Gender differences in footwear is an example of one such topic.

Survey Research

Students again choose as a group the issues they want to survey. They develop and pre-test their instrument and then must use the appropriate sampling procedures to obtain a representative sample of the peers. A popular topic every year is the assessment of satisfaction with the college experience.

Content Analysis

Students conduct a content analysis on selected television programs. They choose and define the target behavior and then must develop a coding scheme. Past classes have coded for seat-belt wearing behavior on detective shows, gender role differences, and degree of sexual interaction between males and females.

The major assignment in the course is a group research project. Students are divided into groups of three to four and are responsible for developing and conducting an original research project. The project is divided into several stages to motivate and provide structure for the students.

Stages of Research Project

TOPIC: The groups choose their topics. Each student is required to hand in a paragraph explaining the topic and a list of at least five references.

PROPOSAL: Each student writes her/his own research proposal. This includes a title page, introduction, methods, and reference section.

ORAL DEFENSE: Each group is required to orally defend its proposal. The groups meet with the professor who questions them on past research, their hypotheses, and the present design.

EXPERIMENT: The students conduct the experiment. They are permitted to collect and analyze the data as a group.

ORAL PRESENTATION: Each group presents its findings to the class in a conference format. Interested faculty, students, and even the Dean and President have been invited to attend these presentations.

FINAL PAPER: Each student must hand in a final paper on the project. The paper is a complete APA style report of the research.

5. INDEPENDENT RESEARCH

Students get course credit for designing, conducting, and reporting their own original research. They are required to write an APA style research paper on their work and if possible do an oral presentaion to the department.

V. IMPORTANT CONSIDERATIONS

1. STUDENT PREPARATION

Student preparation is necessary for successful research experience. They must understand their topic, possess statistical and computer expertise, and display the maturity and responsibility for carrying out a project.

2. CLASS COMPOSITION

Many times factors involving the composition of the class will determine the type of research project which is assigned. Variables that should be considererd are: variability in student preparation, having majors and nonmajors in the same course, and class size. Obviously, a small class size (15-16 students) is preferable.

3. DEPARTMENTAL FACILITIES

Before determining the type of research assignment to integrate into a course, you must determine whether your department has adequate facilities for the project. To achieve success in the research program, you must have appropriate labs, experimental rooms, computer facilities, and library holdings.

4. DEPARTMENTAL SUPPORT

You need to consider whether you have enough equipment or the types of equipment necesary for running experiments. Even if you have equipment, you will probably need a departmental budget to update or expand your equipment. You also need to make sure that there is space to store and properly use the equipment.

A very important consideration is the subject pool. Where are you going to get your volunteers? Many collegses require Introductory Psychology students to participate in one or more experiments. If you are going to do this you need to make sure that you have the agreement and cooperation of you departmental colleagues. Another option is to use some of the departmental budget to pay subjects. This can be very expensive as it usally requires between three and five dollars to sufficiently motivate students to show up. Related to this is the problem that you will probably end up with a biased subject sample; a sample made up primarily of psychology majors and their friends.

5. INSTRUCTOR CONSIDERATIONS

One should investigate how supervising student research will fit into the course load. Will this count toward yourcontact hours or is it just adding another burden? Supervising research takes a great deal of time. You need to put in preparation time before the term begins and you will need to put in many extra hours supervising the work once the term is in progress. In some colleges, there is compensation either financially or more often in terms of a slightly reduced course load. Many faculty members receive no compensation for this extra work.

6. STUDENT INTEREST AND MOTIVATION

If you make student resarch a general requirment, you will end up working with some students who have no motivation or interest. It is very difficult to get these students involved in projects and they tend to do a very poor job. These students will cause you to put in even more work and effort.

7. ETHICS

Having students do research is a great way to teach them about ethics. However, you must always keep in mind that you are the one who is legally reponsible! If anything should happen you and/or the school can be sued. You should make sure that your personal liability is protected.

You need to train students in the APA ethical guidelines and have formal procedures for subject consent and debriefing. One way to handle the problem of liability and ethics is to have a college wide ethics committee that reviews all the resarch done on campus. If you are getting federally funded grants, an ethics committee is required. Even if your research is not federally funded, an ethics committee is a good idea. There are several models for research evaluation being used at different schools. If you have trouble setting up a college wide committee, you might settle for a departmental ethics committee. You could also have one or two department members who review proposed experiments.

VI. CONCLUSION

Research is an important and worthwhile component of the undergraduate experience. There are a wide variety of ways to integrate research experience into your program. The most crucial factors in designing a research experience are to be aware of all possible problems that could interfere with the success of the project and plan carefully.

MAMA RAT AND HER PUPS

an observational project for a course in general psychology

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Mama Rat and Her Pups: An Observational Project for Courses in General Psychology

An essential part of every course in general psychology is the study of the sequence of development. A major goal of this project is to provide students with empirical experience showing the course of development as it follows an orderly sequence. While observations of human development over a fairly long span of time are impracticable, the use of an animal with a short developmental period permits the student to observe behavior in this species from birth to maturity. The project being reported uses the standard hooded laboratory rat, Sprague-Dawley strain. With both mothers and pups available for observation, students may note not only the pup's development but also characteristics of the mother's behavior before birth and during the course of their pups' maturing. Thus students can see illustrations of a variety of concepts in ethology, comparative and developmental psychology.

The observations take place in a viewing rooms with one-way screens behind which are four cages. At the beginning of the project, one cage contains a rat mother shortly before delivery. The next cage has a mother with one-week old pups, the next with two-week old pups, the last with three-week old pups. Students observe these cages for a period of one-half to one hour per day for five days over the span of a week. They may, therefore, study the mother in pre-partem behaviors and the pups from birth to four weeks of age.

Students are oriented in techniques of careful observation and categorization of these behaviors. Lists of categories are provided as part of a handout. One issue stressed during orientation is the importance of learning to observe without making unwarranted inferences, a task difficult for some students. The students should be able to identify a variety of behaviors of interest, such as nest building, nursing, retrieving and weaning in the mother and various stages of physical and motor development, sensory development (to a limited extent) and social development in the pups.

A number of goals are fulfilled in this project. First is training the students in careful observation and recording. Second is the sorting of these observations in categories related to concepts presented in class and readings. Thus the student should be able to relate observations to such concepts as species characteristic behavior, pattern of motor development (cephalo-caudal, proximo-distal, mass to specific sequences), inferences concerning sensory capacities from their behavior, and patterns of social behavior in mother-pup and pup-to-pup interactions.

Finally, the student prepares a paper on the results of his or her observations. One emphasis in the orientation of the students for this task is on the character of scientific reporting in which one attempts to avoid expression of personal feelings and emotional reactions. This paper is often read critically by an instructor and fellow-students in English composition classes as well as by the instructor in general psychology.

The project fulfills a number of pedagogical objectives. In learning to observe carefully and use clearly defined criteria in catagorizing the observed behaviors the students gain insights into the process of research, and begin on the road to becoming keen observers, a skill needed in many disciplines. In relating observations to concepts the student acquires a sense of the significance of theory in scientific work. Lastly, in preparing a paper the student learns to communicate the results of research. This last is especially important to us at Beaver since a major objective of our entire academic program is the development of skill in writing across the curriculum.

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Psychology 101-102
1987-88

Beaver College
Glenside, Pa

Mama Rat and the Developing Young

INTRODUCTION

One of the major goals of this project is to show how the course of development follows an orderly sequence both in humans and other mammals. Another goal is to observe the behavior of mothers before birth and with their pups. You are probably more interested in children than rats, but children develop much too slowly for the time we have available. Rats go through childhood in six weeks and are sexually adult in twelve weeks; the developmental process is short in time but is similar in many respects to that exhibited by humans. As you watch baby rats develop, you will have experiences in making behavioral observations, relating those observations to theoretical principles, and writing a short paper describing your observations and conclusions.

The theoretical interest of the project lies in two areas. The first is that of "instinct", or species-characteristic behavior. Your text or instructor will give you some background for the ideas you will be examining in this area. Maternal behavior is often given as an example of an instinct. You will have a chance to watch a rat mother preparing for the birth of her pups and caring for them. You will then be able to check what you see against the criteria for species-characteristic behavior in the readings.

Another theoretical area is development. You will have a chance to observe the orderly changes in appearance and behavior of the pups as they get older and check these observations against the principles of development described in your readings and in class. If you want to read further, your instructor can refer you to other materials.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR OBSERVATIONS

You will observe the external anatomy and behavior of several litters of pups from the time they are born until they are weaned about a month later. You will also observe the behavior of the mothers from their last few days of pregnancy until weaning. Pregnant rats usually build nests a few days prior to parturition. With luck, you may be present while a female is delivering.

There will be four sets of animals, with pups born at one week intervals. There will be available for observation animals which have just been born, which are one week old, which are 2 weeks old, and which are 3 weeks old. By the end of the week of observation, those litters will be 1 week, 2 weeks, 3 weeks, and

4 weeks old respectively. You should observe the rats for a half hour to an hour each day. During each observation spend some time looking at all four age groups. Since each age group is available at all times you will be able to compare the different ages.

The animals are located behind a one-way viewing screen in Room 108. Rats are most active during the night so we maintain them on a reversed light/dark cycle. Since they are relatively insensitive to red light, such illumination simulates their night-time which begins in the laboratory at 8 AM and ends at 5 PM. Do not turn on the lights in the observation room. You must allow a few minutes for your eyes to adapt to the very dim light of the room. You must determine your own schedule for observations. At some times during the day, there may be many observers, and it may be hard to see, or all the animals may be asleep. So try to plan several different times during the day when you can observe. The building is unlocked until 11:00 PM.

The most useful way to record your observations is to make a large table or chart on several pages of your notebook with columns for each behavior. An example of the format for such a chart is attached. During each period you should be sure to record descriptions of at least several of the items about mother or pups from the list on Table 1. The more information you record, the easier it will be to write your final paper. Date every observation and mark clearly the cage, so that you can figure out the age for milestones, such as birth, eyes opening, beginning walking, first eating solid food, weaning, etc.

It sometimes helps to discuss your observations with your roommate or someone else in the class to increase the precision of your descriptions. You may find that you did not notice some details. After talking with someone else you may be able to record during your next observation time with greater specificity.

Observation of mothers. Your observation periods will be divided between watching the mothers and watching the pups. In observing the mothers you will look for the following categories of observations as listed on Table 1: nest-building, retrieving the young, grooming the young, grooming herself, nursing, sleeping, feeding, walking. The last four activities you will observe simply to see the postures and movements which are characteristic of the adult animal, so that you can compare those behaviors in the pups. The mothers' behaviors of major interest are those that involve the litter (nest-building, retrieving, grooming, and nursing). You should see changes in those behaviors between the mothers of the oldest pups and the youngest. The oldest pups should be weaned or be in the process of being weaned, because by four weeks they could be living away from the mother.

When you observe a behavior such as grooming, record in as much detail as you can exactly how the mother does it. How does she hold the pups? Does she hold them differently at different ages? What parts of the body are involved? Is grooming of the pups similar to her grooming of herself, or of the pups' grooming of one another? When observing nursing there are also many details you should record, such as how much time, what postures, what ages of pups, method of weaning? For each behavior that you observe there are many precise aspects that you should describe. Remember that besides a complete description of the behavior, you are also interested in seeing changes in that behavior in four weeks of development. Examples of descriptions for several categories are given in Table 2.

Observation of pups. Divide your observation period between the various cages. Observing each age during each observation period will give you an appreciation of behavioral and anatomic development of rat pups. Table 1 provides a partial list of items to observe. For each item you must record in careful detail the components of each behavior. How do they sleep? In what position? Related to the litter in what way? How does walking develop? What parts of the body make what kind of movements? Does it look like the way the mother walks?

Be careful not to record your feelings or interpretation, but simply what you see. "The mother is taking time for herself" or "She hates her babies now that they are older," are not good observations. "Mother is sleeping on opposite side of cage from nest," or "Mother walks away from pups during nursing," are appropriate observations because they do not project human ideas onto the animals.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR PAPER

Your paper has two components: (1) a summary of your observations and (2) an interpretation or discussion of the important concepts demonstrated by your observations. Assume that your paper will be read by another member of the class who could not do the observatins, but who has read the same material that you have.

Summary. In making your summary, first arrange all of your observations of mother and pups in a chronological order by the age of the pups. Reading through them then you can see the chronology of feeding changes, or mobility, or grooming, or condition of nest, etc. You are to summarize material both about the mothers and the pups. A summary requires the omission of some of your details and the selection of more important observations. If your observations show a continuous, detailed picture of growth of only some of the behaviors listed on Table 1, then emphasize those behaviors and ignore others. You see that the quality of your summary is dependent upon the quality of your observations. A graphic or tabular summary of your observations is helpful to the reader. Remember there are many details to be read about and understood, so give the reader all the help you can.

In summarizing your observations, remember that you are providing scientific data rather than a report on your own feelings. For example, even if you had a strong emotional reaction to seeing a mother rat give birth, you should not include a report on that emotion in this paper. (You might want to write an entirely different kind of essay for your English class on your feelings of pity, terror or sympathy as you watched a mother rat give birth.)

Interpretation. The purpose of this section of the paper is to link the observations you have described in your summary with the theoretical ideas and concepts discussed in the readings and in class. In a sense you are telling the reader why it was worthwhile to have made these observations. You should take several of the theoretical concepts about trends in development or about species-specific behavior and look for data in your observations which would help explain or illustrate these concepts. The more ably you relate observations to concepts the more you will understand how scientists are able to draw conclusions of importance from observational data. One example might be the concept that motor behavior progresses from mass responses to specific or differentiated responses. Look at your observations. Can you find examples of mass responses (generalized twitching of the whole body might be one)? Can you find examples of specific responses (handling solid food)? Now check the frequency with which mass responses and specific responses occur early in the pups' development, and later in development. Does the concept fit your observations? Are there more mass responses early and more specific responses later?

Are there examples in your notes of behaviors that you think are reflexes? How can you tell if it is a reflex? Are there behaviors that you observed in only one or two animals? How do you explain those?

A few last words. In your final draft, check your paper for spelling (especially psychological terms) and punctuation. Errors of spelling and punctuation give a poor first impression of your writing skills. If your paper received a first reading in English 100, 101, 102, or the Writing Center, you should write an acknowledgment of this. The Beaver College Style Sheet describes the form for acknowledgments and references for psychology papers.

The quality of your paper will not be judged on its length. A good paper has richness of detail, a presentation that allows the reader to "see" through your observations, and a thoughtful interpretation linking concepts to your observations.

The tone of your paper should be that of a serious scientific report. Humor or other informalities are not appropriate for this type of objective description of your research efforts.

Table I

Behavioral Categories for Description of Mother and Pups

1. Mothers

   - Nest building
   - Grooming self, grooming pups (especially anal licking)
   - Exploration
   - Nursing
   - Retrieving
   - Rejecting pups at weaning
   - Walking
   - Feeding

2. Pups

   - Sleeping (solitary, social)
   - Feeding
     - Suckling
     - Solid food - eating behavior
     - Drinking
     - Locomotion: Stages include trunk movements or wiggling, twitching, freezing, sniffing, orienting, hopping, crawling with forepaws, righting movements, rising to erect position, walking, running, climbing, rising and swaying, jumping.
     - Sensory behavior: Describe indications of response to visual, auditory, odor, tactile cues.
     - Elimination: urination, defecation, anal licking
     - Vocalization: quality of sounds (if audible), stimuli to sound production
     - Grooming: face washing, licking, scratching (which paws, location of area scratched)
     - Exploration: sniffing objects, making lateral head movements, digging in nesting materials
     - Social behavior: Describe at each stage.
       - huddling, mutual sleeping postures
       - fighting over nursing position
       - general social activity such as running, jumping, chasing, wrestling, mutual grooming
       - fighting, including description of posture, length of encounter, acting of "victor" and "loser"
       - pseudo-sexual behavior, sniffing and licking of genitals, mounting

Stages of growth and physical development should be outlined on the basis of exact descriptions of skin (later fur), appearance of coloration, apparent length and weight, time of opening of eyes.

Table 2

Sample Criteria for Behavioral Categories

1. Nest building

Mother pushes bedding material with nose, holds it in forepaws, heaps it in corner of cage (how high? how tidy or regular? what proportion of the bedding materials in the cage is included in the heap?). Mother lies on heap creating a depression in the center. Mother works at edges of heap. Mother picks up her tail and carries it to nest.

2. Grooming self

Mother lies on back, paws extended, licks and bites at fur (where?). Mother scratches at head behind ears with fore or rear paws (which?). Mother rubs against sides of cage. (Describe position of mother while she is licking as precisely as possible.)

3. Feeding behavior

Mother lies on side, belly extended (describe position exactly). Pup struggles for position on mother's belly with wriggling movements of trunk, treading movements of forepaws. Pup holds on to nipple, engages in coordinated sucking movements and treading of forepaws. Pup struggles to maintain position, squeals if displaced by mother's movements or by other pups. (Time length of suckling for several pups.) Describe actions as pup disengages when it is sated.

SAMPLE CHART

Date of observation	Mother's behavior	Pups' Physical development	Locomotion	Sensory development	Social behavior	Miscellaneous

Classroom Exercises and Activities
For a Course in Human Sexuality

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Paper presented at *The 3rd Annual Conference on Undergraduate Teaching of Psychology: Ideas and Innovations*. Philadelphia, PA. March 9-11, 1989.

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Introduction

The present workshop provides participants with suggestions and materials for developing exercises and activities to be used in the Human Sexuality course. Participants have the opportunity to engage in one or two of the activities currently used in the Human Sexuality course at Dickinson College, they are provided with instructions and materials for several additional activities, and are encouraged to develop and share their own exercises and activities for use in the course. In addition, suggestions regarding outside resources including films and guest speakers are provided.

The course Human Sexuality, taught in the Department of Psychology at Dickinson College, provides a comprehensive analysis of the interaction of biological, psychological, and social factors that contribute to human sexuality. The course covers the following topics: methods of sexuality research, historical and cross-cultural behavior, sexual anatomy and physiology, human reproduction, childhood sexuality, sexuality across the lifespan, sexually transmitted diseases, legal and ethical issues, atypical sexual activity, gender identity and gender roles, and sexual dysfunction and therapy. To aid students' comprehension of, reflection on, and retention of the material presented in relation to these topics much of the class time is devoted to active and interactive exercises, discussion, debates, and critiques of materials presented. The present workshop is intended to share these ideas with participants and to encourage the development of appropriate activities for participants' own classrooms.

Exercise 1: Contrasting Cultural and Personal Values

I use this first exercise at the very beginning of the course. The exercise consists of having the students indicate whether they believe each of 16 behaviors (for example, public nudity, homosexuality, sex among the elderly) is acceptable in our culture and then indicate whether it is personally acceptable or not. They can also indicate that they don't understand the terminology.

After the students finish their responses to 16 behaviors, I have them put their student numbers on the back of the paper and pass the papers to me. Next, I redistribute the papers to the class with the prohibition that no one can look at the student number on the back. We then go over the terms on the worksheet taking a poll as to the responses that are now in front of the students. In other words, each student reports what the sheet in front of them indicates rather than their own views. I record the total number of responses for each category on the board, as well as on a separate record sheet. These responses are used again at the end of the course in conjunction with Exercise 10. As we proceed through each behavioral term I also ask for volunteers to define the term, with my providing a definition or clarification where needed. At the end, I return each paper to the person who originally completed it.

I typically do this exercise on the first or second day of class for several reasons:

1. It is a great ice breaker. It typically generates a log of discussion and quickly sets the students at ease in the course.

2. It gives the students a chance to say some not so threatening words (like masturbation) publicly and in a mixed sex group, often for the first time.

3. It allows the students to see that it is O.K. to have different views and values. Even in rating the cultural perspective students view it differently.

4. Lastly, it is important for them to learn that others in the class don't know all of the terminology, are not as sexually sophisticated as they might expect, and that there is nothing embarrassing in saying "I don't know what that means."

Contrasting Cultural and Personal Values

Instructions: Place a check (✓) under the appropriate response indicating the prevailing cultural value regarding certain activities and your own personal value about the "rightness" or "wrongness" of the activities.

Activity	Cultural value		Personal value		Don't know terminology
	Right	Wrong	Right	Wrong	
1. Public nudity					
2. Masturbation (in private)					
3. Male homosexuality					
4. Female homosexuality					
5. Childhood sex play					
6. Premarital coitus					
7. Polygyny					
8. Polyandry					
9. Endogamy					
10. Exogamy					
11. Incest					
12. Extramarital coitus					
13. Homosexuals having children					
14. Older men marrying younger women					
15. Older women marrying younger men					
16. Sexual relations among non-married elderly					

Exercise 2: What Do Men Prefer in a Woman?

Taking the perspective of a male college student considering asking a woman on a date, the students are asked to rate 12 characteristics of a woman on a scale ranging from undesirable to essential. After making their ratings the class has a discussion on the topic and, typically, is most interested in the men's perspective vs. the women's perspective.

After the discussion, I provide the class with the following summary of how this rating was completed by a group of male Harvard undergraduates in 1972 (based on a Psychology Today, January 1972 article):

A.	3	E.	2	I.	3
B.	2	F.	3	J.	1
C.	3	G.	2	K.	1
D.	2	H.	4	L.	3

The listing of the Harvard men's responses stimulates discussion and allows for discussion of historical changes in perceptions on sexuality (leading into Exercise 3).

Lastly, the class is asked to rate these same characteristics if they were applied to a man and the perspective was that of a female college student considering asking a man on a date. We then discuss these ratings.

What Do Men Prefer in a Woman?

Instructions: Rate each of the following characteristics according to your estimation of their importance to men in choosing a woman to ask on a date. Place a 1 next to "essential" characteristics, a 2 next to "helpful" characteristics, a 3 next to characteristics that "make no difference," and a 4 next to "undesirable" characteristics.

1 Essential
2 Helpful
3 Makes no difference
4 Undesirable

A. ____ Religious

B. ____ Well-dressed

C. ____ Altruistic

D. ____ Intellectually sophisticated

E. ____ Sexually liberated

F. ____ Socially equal

G. ____ Effervescent personality

H. ____ Unconventional lifestyle

I. ____ Good reputation

J. ____ Good conversationalist

K. ____ Sexually attractive

L. ____ Quiet personality

Exercise 3: The Effects of Various Historic and Contemporary Events on Human Sexuality

This exercise is designed to help the students to think about the ways in which a variety of historical and contemporary events, changes in individual's life cycles, and medical advances have affected the area of human sexuality. Part of the intent of this exercise is to help them realize that issues of human sexuality are somewhat time bound, that the issues are related to the historic period in which they are discussed. It is hoped that they will realize that during their lifetime both the issues and their views on the issues are likely to change.

The exercise is based on John Money's seven "tides" which he suggests have influenced human sexuality. The students are directed to speculate on how each of seven events has or will influence issues of sexuality. After completing a worksheet on this, this class engages in a discussion on the topic. For this exercise I modified Money's list slightly. I have included the topic of AIDS and eliminated the topic of the abundance of communications about sex. The 7 events listed are as follows:

A. The industrial revolution. Money suggests that this event affected gender roles. No longer was it necessary to have men perform the most physically difficult tasks because of their strength.

B. The birth control pill. The introduction of the birth control pill allowed for the reliable separation of procreational and recreational sex.

C. The decrease in the age of puberty. There is a need for better sex education directed at increasingly younger children.

D. The increasing average lifespan. The issue of sexuality among the elderly is raised here. Also, the legal, psychological, economic, and social issues of the newly single elderly remarrying or living together.

E. The control of V.D. by antibiotics. Contributed to the increase in both premarital and extramarital sex.

F. The greater cultural acceptance of divorce. Serial monogamy may become (or perhaps is) the norm.

G. AIDS. Current effects on patterns of sexuality. Also future effects are typically speculated on.

The Effects of Various Historic and Contemporary Events on Human Sexuality

Instructions: For each of the events listed below, speculate on how the event has or will influence issues of sexuality.

A. The industrial revolution.

B. The birth control pill.

C. The decrease in the age of puberty (decreasing by about 4 months every 10 years).

D. The increasing average lifespan.

E. The control of V.D. by antibiotics.

F. The greater cultural acceptance of divorce.

G. AIDS.

Exercise 4: Debate: Monogamy Pro or Con

This exercise is designed to get the students to research, think about, and discuss the issue of whether or not sexual relationships should be exclusively monogamous in nature. The exercise takes two class days to complete and includes a debate and the viewing of a videotape.

Day 1. About one week prior to this day the students are given a handout describing the debate they will be asked to participate in. They are informed to prepare for both sides (pro or con) on the issue of monogamy and that it won't be until the day of the debate that they will actually be assigned to a team to defend one side or the other.

Debate Schedule

Time Allotted	Activity
5 minutes	Divide class into two teams.
15 minutes	Team discussion, preparation for opening statements.
5 minutes each	Opening statements--this can be from one or several members. Must be a statement, not a rebuttal.
5 minutes	Team discussion and preparation
3 minutes each	Comment and rebuttal
5 minutes	Team discussion and preparation
3 minutes each	Comment and rebuttal
10 minutes	Open debate and discussion
5 minutes	Team discussion and preparation
3 minutes each	Closing statements--again, can be one or several members. But, it must be in the form of a position statement.

Day 2. During the next class session the studentswatch a segment from Geraldo entitled "Lovers, Luster, and Love Triangles." This segment features several different nonmonogamous relationships, including a multiple marriage and a pseudo-swingers group. The students then complete a reflections sheet to help them think more on the issue. We end with a general discussion of their opinions on the topic after having the debate and viewing the videotape.

Debate: Monogamy Pro or Con

Next week we will have a debate on the topic Monogamy Pro or Con. At the beginning of class you will be assigned either to a team that will support the concept of monogamy, or to a team that will argue against monogamy and in favor of non-monogamous relationships. Typical non-monogamous relationships include group marriages (three or more people) or marriages where either the husband or wife (or both) have extra-marital sexual relationships.

During the next week you should spend four to five hours preparing for the debate. Think about arguments in support of both the pro and con sides (you won't know which team you are on until you come to class). Look in the library, use our text, and use materials from other sources, perhaps other courses you have taken, to develop your arguments. Your arguments can be based on a variety of perspectives: medical and health concerns, religious and ethical concerns, psychological concerns, and sociological and anthropological data. Often, even a single source will have material supporting both the pro and con sides of the argument. For example, the Bible could be used as a reference for either side because there are both proscriptions favoring monogamous relationships and examples of acceptable non-monogamous relationships contained in its teachings.

At the beginning of class you will be assigned to either the pro (for monogamy) or con (against monogamy) team. The format for the debate will be explained at that time. Both teams will be given 15 to 20 minutes at the start of the class to prepare for the debate and to develop an opening statement. The more prepared each member of the class is to defend either side of this argument the livelier and more informative the debate will be for all of us.

Monogamy Pro or Con: Reflections

During our last class you participated in a debate on monogamy and today you watched a videotape about non-monogamous relationships. During preparation for the debate, participation in the debate, and viewing the videotape you have been exposed to a variety of viewpoints, pro and con, regarding this topic. Personally, how do you feel about this topic? Should marriage be monogamous or are non-monogamous marriages appropriate? Why?

Use the space below to reflect on your feelings about this topic. In your reflection, consider the topic from both a personal perspective (would you engage in a non-monogamous marriage) and a perspective reflecting your view as to what others in our community should or should not be allowed to do.

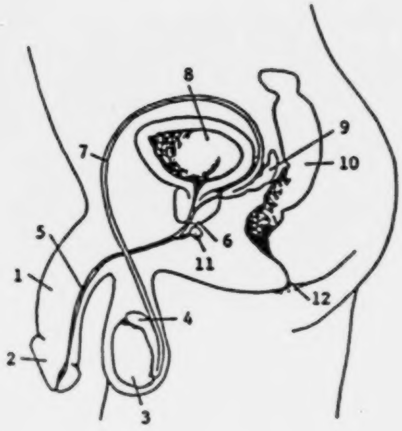
Exercise 5: Sexual Anatomy

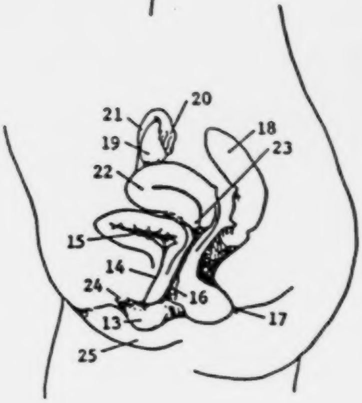
This exercise is simply a review of basic male and female sexuality. The exercise consists of matching names to 25 pictured sexual organs and is intended to facilitate the students' understanding of some basic anatomical terminology.

Answer Key:

Sexual Anatomy

Directions: Match the numbers in the diagram with the list of sexual organs.

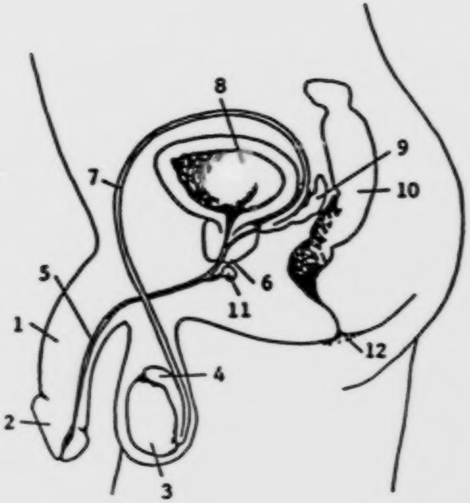


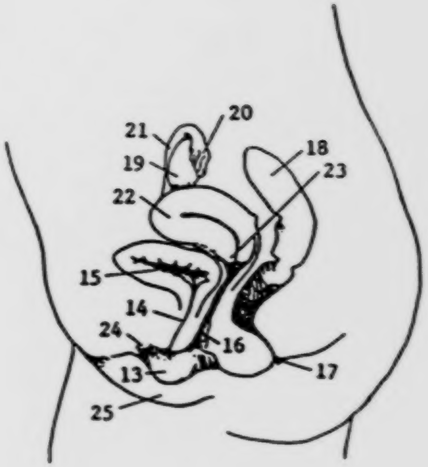


Number on diagram	List of sexual organs
1. q	a. female anus
2. g	b. clitoris
3. s	c. male anus
4. l	d. Cowper's gland
5. p	e. male urinary bladder
6. v	f. female urethra
7. i	g. glans
8. e	h. labia majora
9. n	i. vas deferens
10. x	j. ovary
11. d	k. cervix
12. c	l. epididymis
13. u	m. fimbria
14. f	n. seminal vesicle
15. o	o. female urinary bladder
16. t	p. male urethra
17. a	q. penis
18. r	r. female rectum
19. j	s. testis
20. m	t. vagina
21. w	u. labia minora
22. y	v. prostate
23. k	w. fallopian tube
24. b	x. male rectum
25. h	y. uterus

Sexual Anatomy

Directions: Match the numbers in the diagram with the list of sexual organs.





Number on diagram

1. ____
2. ____
3. ____
4. ____
5. ____
6. ____
7. ____
8. ____
9. ____
10. ____
11. ____
12. ____
13. ____
14. ____
15. ____
16. ____
17. ____
18. ____
19. ____
20. ____
21. ____
22. ____
23. ____
24. ____
25. ____

List of sexual organs

a. female anus
b. clitoris
c. male anus
d. Cowper's gland
e. male urinary bladder
f. female urethra
g. glans
h. labia majora
i. vas deferens
j. ovary
k. cervix
l. epididymis
m. fimbria
n. seminal vesicle
o. female urinary bladder
p. male urethra
q. penis
r. female rectum
s. testis
t. vagina
u. labia minora
v. prostate
w. Fallopian tube
x. male rectum
y. uterus

Exercise 6: Sexual Anatomy Continued

I use this exercise immediately after the Exercise 5 on Sexual Anatomy in which students label male and female sex organs. This exercise focuses first on the issue that the pubic area, the genitals, and the traditionally classified internal sex organs are not the only parts of the body that can be considered to be sexual. Secondly, the exercise tries to help the student think about the wide variety of perceptions about what is and is not sexual in nature. Lastly, the topic of variability in physical anatomy is addressed. The exercise is divided into two parts, anatomy and variability.

Part A: Anatomy. During this part of the exercise the students are asked to answer 3 questions. The first question asks whether the body parts labelled in Exercise 5 are the only areas classifiable as sexual. The second asks what other areas they would classify as sexual. And the third asks what areas could be classified as sexual by someone else.

Part B: Variability. In this part the students are asked to trace their hand on a piece of paper. Then they are asked to have a same-sex member of the class trace his or her hand on the same piece of paper (the second hand superimposed on the first often works well).

After the tracing of the hands we discuss the differences in size, shape, etc. Some are bigger, others smaller, some are skinny, others fat. This discussion leads into the variability of both bodies as wholes and individual body parts. And, that although we may all have some preference as to what we like or don't like, we are all different in our makeup and yet we are all sexually attractive beings. Within this discussion I also use a set of pictures found in Diamond and Karlen's *Sexual Decisions* text, in which 3 college-age women and three college-age men are shown nude from both the front and the back.

Sexual Anatomy (continued)

Part A: Anatomy.

In the exercise on sexual anatomy you labelled several body parts that are generally agreed to be sexual in nature.

1. Are they the only parts of the body that should be classified as sexual? Why or why not?

2. Are there other parts of the body you would classify as sexual? If your answer is "yes," which ones?

3. What other parts of the body could be classified as sexual by someone else?

Part B. Variability.

On the back of this paper, trace your hand. Once you have done this, have a classmate of the same sex trace their hand on the back of this paper.

Exercise 7: Gender Roles and Sex Differences

Using a quiz in which students rate statements such as "Boys have a greater achievement motivation" as either true or false, this exercise leads into a discussion and lecture on the distinction between biological differences and culturally determined differences. Based to a large extent on the work of Maccoby and Jacklin (1974), the discussion that follows the exercise also encompasses new research findings on the topic.

The exercise itself involves a forced choice for each question. Essentially, the students must choose either boys or girls as being "better" in each of 16 areas of functioning. The forced choice (no place is provided for a "they are the same" answer) seems to help the students spend more time in carefully assessing their perceptions about these areas of functioning. Although this may seem a bit contrived, it appears to lead to a better discussion on the topic.

Gender Roles and Sex Differences

The following true-false quiz is intended to help you assess the stereotypes you have regarding sex differences. Decide for yourself which of these statements are true and which are false.

T F 1. Girls have greater verbal abilities than boys.

T F 2. Girls are more affected by heredity, boys by the environment.

T F 3. Boys have greater achievement motivation.

T F 4. Girls are more fragile than boys.

T F 5. Boys are more active than girls.

T F 6. Girls are more timid and fearful than boys.

T F 7. Girls are more suggestible than boys.

T F 8. Boys excel in visual-spatial ability.

T F 9. Girls excel in mathematical ability.

T F 10. Boys are more competitive than girls.

T F 11. Boys are more aggressive.

T F 12. Girls are more passive.

T F 13. Girls are more compliant.

T F 14. Boys mature faster than girls.

T F 15. Girls are more vulnerable to stress.

T F 16. Girls are better at rote learning and simple repetitive tasks. Boys are better at high-level tasks that require them to inhibit previously learned responses.

Exercise 8: Vacation Schedule

This is a role-playing exercise intended to allow students to experience how the gender of participants in a discussion may affect the decisions being made and to look at the issues of gender roles and differential treatment based on one's sex. Five students engage in a problem solving exercise. They each are given a description of one person to role-play. The five play the roles of a supervisor for an accounting department in a major insurance company and four employees: George, Annie, Marge, and Sam. Their task is to solve a problem with the timing of their vacations. The supervisor's description is gender neutral, so if the class is large enough, it is useful to have several groups doing this simultaneously (some with female supervisors, others with male) and then discuss the differences.

After the exercise is over (about 20 minutes) the students complete a reflections sheet that contains several questions related to the exercise. They then discuss their responses to these questions.

While this entire exercise is going on I have one or more students observe the group and, using suggestions presented in Part One of observer's sheet, have them focus on behaviors related to gender roles and differential treatment. In part one the observers make their observations during the problem solving activity. Then while the rest of the class is filling out their reflections sheet, the observers plan what they are going to tell the group. However, before the observers' reports, the group discusses their reflections. During this time the observers continue to observe the group and use the suggestions presented in Part Two of the observer's sheet to help focus their observations. After this discussion, the observers have a chance to report on what they have observed and the class as a whole can enter a general discussion on the topic.

Typical Sequence	Time
1. Assign Roles	1 minute
2. Reading Descriptions	5 minutes
3. Problem Solving Exercise	20 minutes
4. Reflections Sheet	15 minutes
5. Discussion on Reflections	10 minutes
6. Observer's Report	10 minutes
7. General Discussion	10 minutes

VACATION SCHEDULE ROLE-PLAY SHEET

Supervisor

Background: You supervise twenty people in the accounting department of a major insurance company. Vacation scheduling has always been a problem here because of the increase in activity during the summer months. This year, however, you developed a vacation schedule early, checked with your staff, and by the end of March had a schedule that showed only two people out during any one week. This fit in with your objective of having only two scheduled absences per week.

Next week will be an exception to your policy. Two employees, George and Annie, were already scheduled to take their vacations when another employee, Sam, transferred into your area on the condition that he could take his vacation next week as previously scheduled. Since George had already planned to take his family camping in Idaho, Annie was going to Hawaii for her annual family reunion, and you were eager to have Sam join your staff, you decided that things would be all right, as long as nothing else came up.

1:15 P.M. Just as you were returning from lunch, Marge approached your desk with a problem. Her husband, who has been out of work for several months, has just landed a week-long job hauling goods from the next state, beginning Monday. The difficulty is that he needs her to go with him because she is the only one who knows his business operation well enough to help him on such short notice. She has not taken her vacation yet, and you know from previous conversations how important this hauling job is to their financial stability. But if Marge were gone next week, four people would be out—hardly an ideal situation for the rest of the staff.

After wrestling with the problem, you told Marge that she could take next week off. You felt that you had made a good decision; Marge always does more than her share of the work.

1:30 P.M. You received a call from Mike's wife. Mike has been out the last two days with a bad cold, but now his wife says he is scheduled for a tonsillectomy Monday and will not be in next week at all. This raises the number of people out next week to five!

1:45 P.M. As you reconsidered the wisdom of letting Marge take next week off, Bryan strolled up to your desk. He had a job interview during his lunch hour and will be starting his new job *Monday*. Now you will be *six* people short next week; you shudder to think of the chaos that will result.

You are not sure how you are going to solve this problem. Can your department realistically manage next week with six people gone? If not, what are the alternatives? Should you handle this situation alone or involve others?

2:00 P.M. You have just called a meeting with George, Annie, Marge, and Sam to discuss the problem. Mike and Bryan, of course, are out of the schedule altogether. You have asked the workers to meet with you in the conference room.

VACATION SCHEDULE ROLE-PLAY SHEET

Marge

Background: It is about two o'clock on a Friday afternoon in late June. Your husband, Joe, who has not been able to locate any work for the past few months, called about an hour ago with the news that he has a week-long contract to haul goods from the next state beginning Monday, but he needs you to go along with him to handle the bookkeeping and other functions. You are not scheduled to take your vacation until August. You talked to your supervisor about the situation, and your supervisor agreed to reschedule your vacation for next week.

You were elated when Joe called with the good news about the job next week. Not only have things been pretty tight financially these past few months, but this period of unemployment has really been a drain on Joe's usually optimistic outlook. Now he has a chance to earn some money, regain his self-esteem, and maybe even continue to work with this distributor. You were a bit concerned when you learned that he needed you to go with him on this run, since you know how much your absence will increase the work load in the department, and you do not want to be a burden to your friends here. But, in your mind, it is a valid, unavoidable emergency, since you are the only one who knows Joe's business well enough to help him out on such short notice.

Your supervisor understands the situation and has been a real friend during the crisis of the last few months, providing financial counseling as well as moral support. To show your appreciation, you are planning to put in a couple of hours of overtime before you leave tonight, to reduce the work load a bit.

The Setting: Your supervisor has just called a brief meeting in the conference room "to talk about a problem in next week's schedule."

VACATION SCHEDULE ROLE-PLAY SHEET

Annie

Background: It is about two o'clock on a Friday afternoon in late June—your last day of work before vacation, which you scheduled with your supervisor in February. You are leaving for Hawaii this evening, to attend your seventh annual family reunion.

There are only six more hours before your plane leaves for the islands, and you can hardly wait. Years ago, when your family started this annual get-together, you looked at it as an obligation and a chore—except that it was a chance to go to Hawaii again. Now, however, your perspective has changed and you really look forward to seeing everyone again—even your brother Sam, who is quite a bore until you get to know him. And this year the reunion will be special because your sister and her family will be there after spending three years in Sweden. You hope her superb wit has not changed; it has been such a long time since the two of you have had a good laugh together.

You just hope that things will not be as busy at work when you get back. The recent work load has been unreal!

The Setting: Your supervisor has just called a brief meeting in the conference room "to talk about a problem in next week's schedule."

VACATION SCHEDULE ROLE-PLAY SHEET

George

Background: It is about two o'clock on a Friday afternoon in late June—the last day of work before your vacation, which you scheduled with your supervisor in February. You, your wife, and two children (ages eight and nine) are leaving early tomorrow morning to go camping in Idaho.

The thought of your vacation next week is just about the only thing that has kept you going all week. It has been pretty hectic here, and your morale is badly in need of that rejuvenating mountain air. It seems like years since you have spent a relaxed moment with your family, and beginning early tomorrow morning the four of you will have nine days to explore the Idaho wilderness together. You were just thinking about how excited the kids were last night as you made some last-minute plans. The thought made you smile before you turned back to the mound of paperwork left do do before five o'clock.

The Setting: Your supervisor has just called a brief meeting in the conference room "to talk about a problem in next week's schedule."

VACATION SCHEDULE ROLE-PLAY SHEET

Sam

Background: It is about two o'clock on a Friday afternoon in late June. You are the newest employee in this work group, having joined the department a month ago. Your vacation, due to begin Monday morning, was originally scheduled with your old supervisor in March. When you applied for this position, you were told that you could keep the same vacation week although it would stretch the normal policy a bit. You plan to spend your vacation at a nearby lake with some friends. You are looking forward to it.

You were told that this new job would be a challenge, and nobody was kidding you! You thought that after a month in this department you would be feeling at least somewhat knowledgeable about your new job, but sometimes trying to learn everything at once is overwhelming. You sure need a break, or maybe even a transfer back to your old area, where you were the resident expert. Although it was boring sometimes, right now you would gladly trade some boredom for a lot of frustration. On the other hand, your new supervisor was really pleased to have someone with your background here and indicated that there was a lot of room for advancement.

You have decided to spend some time during your next week at the lake to think about what you want to do.

The Setting: Your supervisor has just called a brief meeting in the conference room "to talk about a problem in next week's schedule."

Vacation Schedule: Reflections

Now that you have finished the vacation schedule role-playing exercise, spend a few minutes thinking about that activity and answering the following questions.

1. What was the solution your group reached?

2. Do you think that the person playing the supervisor was satisfied with the solution?

3. Do you think that the people playing Marge, George, Annie, and Sam (individually) were satisfied with the solution?

4. To the extent that the solution affected you, do you think that your gender influenced the solution?

5. Overall, to what extent and in what ways did gender affect the behaviors of your group and the ultimate solution you arrived at?

Vacation Schedule: Observer

Part One:

Your task will be to observe five of your classmates as they engage in a problem solving exercise. The five are playing the roles of a supervisor for an accounting department in a major insurance company and four employees: George, Annie, Marge, and Sam. At the end of the exercise you will be asked to share your observations with the rest of the group.

While you need not limit your observation, you should try to pay attention to the following issues:

1. Is gender a factor in the decision?
2. Is gender a factor in the communication patterns?
3. Is gender a factor in the power structure?
4. Who talks to each other?
5. Who gives in, who stands firm?

Part Two:

Before you share with the group your observations regarding their behaviors during the role-playing exercise, the group is going to discuss the exercise from its perspective. For the next few minutes your task will be to observe this group now that the members are no longer role-playing. Among other things, you may want to notice:

1. What gender-related behaviors do you notice?
2. Are there differences between the men and women in this discussion?
3. Do the perceptions of the role-playing exercise differ from individual to individual? If so, does this relate to the individual's gender?

Once the discussion is finished, you will be asked to relate your observations to the group. First, you should share your observations about the role-playing exercise, and, second, you should relate your observations regarding the group discussion.

Exercise 9: Debate: Gays as Parents Pro or Con

This exercise is designed to get the students to focus on the topic of homosexuality and specifically asks the question "should homosexuals have children and/or be parents?" The students are asked to research, think about, and discuss this issue in a format patterned on Exercise 4, including having a debate during one class session and viewing a videotape and having a discussion during the next class session.

Day 1. Prior to class the students are given a handout describing the debate they will be asked to participate in. They are informed to prepare for both sides (pro or con) and that it won't be until the day of the debate that they will actually be assigned to a team.

Debate Schedule

Time Allotted	Activity
5 minutes	Divide class into two teams
15 minutes	Team discussion, preparation for opening statements
5 minutes each	Opening statements--one or more team members. Must be a statement, not a rebuttal.
5 minutes	Team discussion and preparation
3 minutes each	Comment and rebuttal
5 minutes	Team discussion and preparation
3 minutes each	Comment and rebuttal
10 minutes	Open debate and discussion
5 minutes	Team discussion and preparation
3 minutes each	Closing statements--one or several team members. It must be in the form of a position statement.

Day 2. During the next class session the students watch a segment from *Geraldo* entitled "Is There a Lesbian Baby Boom?" In this segment are several lesbians (some couples, some single) who have children. Some had children from previous heterosexual marriages, others had children through various means as part of their homosexual relationship. The most influential part for my students are two women who have their preschool daughter with them. After viewing the videotape the students complete a questionnaire on the topic to get them to think a few more minutes on the issue. Lastly, we discuss their answers to the questionnaire.

Debate: Gays as Parents Pro or Con

Next week we will have a debate on the topic of *Gays as Parents Pro or Con*. At the beginning of class you will be assigned either to a team that will support the concept of homosexuals being parents, or to a team that will argue against homosexuals being parents. As with the topic of heterosexual parents, being a homosexual parent may be the result of having a child through normal conception or artificial conception, or may be the result of adopting a child.

During the next week you should spend four to five hours preparing for the debate. Because you will not know which team you are on until you come to class, you should develop arguments in support of both the pro and con sides. The more prepared each member of the class is to defend either side of this argument the livelier and more informative the debate will be for all of us.

Gays as Parents Pro or Con: Reflections

Yesterday you participated in a debate on the topic of homosexuals being parents. During preparation for the debate, participation in the debate, and today's viewing of a videotape on the subject, you have been exposed to a variety of viewpoints, pro and con, regarding this topic. Personally, how do you feel about this topic? Use the space below to answer several questions related to your feelings about this topic.

1. Should homosexuals be parents?

2. Have your feelings about this issue changed since last week? If so, in what ways?

3. Suppose a marriage ends in divorce because one partner is homosexual, who should get custody of the children?

4. Is it appropriate for a homosexual to become pregnant or help cause a pregnancy in order to have children?

5. Should homosexuals be allowed to adopt children?

Exercise 10: Contrasting Cultural and Personal Values Revisited

This exercise is similar to Exercise 1 in which the students rated our cultural and their personal acceptance of 16 sexual behaviors. For this exercise I have kept the original 16 behaviors and added 10 more behaviors. Again, there is a space to indicate that they do not know the terminology.

Depending on the group of students, I sometimes have the students exchange papers using a procedure outlined in Exercise 1 and then we go over the answers. Other times we go over the answers with them simply sharing their own responses. As in Exercise 1 the class defines the terms as we go over them, we discuss the differences in our perceptions of the cultural norms and the differences in individual values, and I summarize the responses on the board. When all the terms have been covered, I put up summaries of the original responses given in Exercise 1.

I use this exercise on the last day of class. I think it accomplishes several things, including:

1. It allows the students an opportunity to view their own changes in both knowledge level and values related to the topic of human sexuality. The two areas that regularly show the most change are public nudity and masturbation. On the first day of class students almost universally report a personal prohibition against these two behaviors. On the last day of class the prohibitions are lifted for virtually all students. When asked to explain their reasoning, the typical answer is something to the effect that "after all we have heard and read about, these two seem relatively tame."
2. It provides a good final discussion that includes a sense of closure. The course started at a particular point, proceeded along its designated path, and ended at a point similar to the beginning.
3. It provides a good final review of some of the concepts and terminology.

Contrasting Cultural and Personal Values Revisited

Instructions: Place a check (✓) under the appropriate response indicating the prevailing cultural value regarding certain sexual acts and your own personal value about the "rightness" or "wrongness" of the sexual act.

		Cultural value		Personal value		Don't know
	Sexual act	Right	Wrong	Right	Wrong	terminology
1.	Public nudity	____	____	____	____	____
2.	Oral-Genital Sex	____	____	____	____	____
3.	Childhood sex play	____	____	____	____	____
4.	Premarital coitus	____	____	____	____	____
5.	Polygyny	____	____	____	____	____
6.	Polyandry	____	____	____	____	____
7.	Sexual relations among non-married elderly	____	____	____	____	____
8.	Group sex	____	____	____	____	____
9.	Incest	____	____	____	____	____
10.	Extramarital coitus	____	____	____	____	____
11.	Kamakia	____	____	____	____	____
12.	Male homosexuality	____	____	____	____	____
13.	Female homosexuality	____	____	____	____	____
14.	Older women marrying younger men	____	____	____	____	____
15.	Endogamy	____	____	____	____	____
16.	Exogamy	____	____	____	____	____
17.	Female Birth Control	____	____	____	____	____
18.	Male Birth Control (Condoms)	____	____	____	____	____
19.	Abortion	____	____	____	____	____
20.	Homosexuals having children	____	____	____	____	____
21.	Take a Human Sexuality course	____	____	____	____	____
22.	Watch animals having coitus	____	____	____	____	____
23.	Using a dildo or inflatable doll	____	____	____	____	____
24.	Masturbation (in private)	____	____	____	____	____
25.	Anal Sex	____	____	____	____	____
26.	Older men marrying younger women	____	____	____	____	____

Additional Resources and Materials

A. *Texts*. I am currently using Masters, Johnson, and Kolodny (1988). It is a good text that compliments most of the topics I like to cover quite well. Another excellent text is Katchadourian (1989).

B. *Films*. *NOVA*: *The Miracle of Life* is a good program showing the processes of conception, prenatal development, and birth. *Sexuality and Aging* is a good film that includes discussions of physiological, psychological, and social changes that can affect sexuality in older individuals.

One source of audiovisual materials is Focus International, 14 Oregon Drive, Huntington Station, New York 11746.

C. *Speakers*. I have found the local office of Planned Parenthood to be an excellent source for guest speakers. Typically, I use one guest speaker to cover contraception; they bring contraceptives to see, touch, and learn about. I use a second speaker for an up-to-date coverage of the AIDS issue.

Acknowledgements

Exercises 1 and 10 are both adaptations based on an exercise presented in Levy (1988).

Exercises 2 and 8 are modifications of exercises presented in Pfeiffer and Jones (1973-1981).

Exercise 3 was developed from a class lecture topic suggested in Kolodny and Tufts (1988).

Exercise 5 is taken from Levy (1988).

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AN INVITATION

In this workshop you have received materials on which to base 10 exercises for the Human Sexuality course. I would like to encourage each of you to think about and develop additional exercises to share with others. To facilitate this process, I will send to anyone who provides me an additional exercise by April 15, a complete set of all the exercises I receive. These can be old or new, original or borrowed, adapted from another course, or whatever. Send your exercises by April 15 to:

Dr. Gregory J. Smith, Chair
Department of Psychology
Dickinson College
Carlisle, PA 17013

THE MEANS AND ENDS OF RAISING CHILDREN:

Parent Interview Activity

Frank M. Bernt

The American College

Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania 19010

INTRODUCTION

Following a period in the history of psychology during which experts and cookbooks on parenting were in vogue, discussions of effective parenting have gradually turned away from the unspoken assumptions that (1) there is a "best way" to raise children and that (2) children raised in this way will inevitably grow into ideal adults (Bettelheim, 1987; Kagan, 1976). Recently, emphasis has been placed upon common-sense "rules of thumb" to be followed and upon the principle that the requirements of effective child rearing are not universal but "ecological"; that is, the question of how to parent cannot be answered without considering the context in which the child is developing (viz., the demands of the community for which the child is being socialized). While students of human development readily assent to this shift in thinking about parenting, their acceptance is generally more intellectual than experiential. This paper describes a simple activity which provides students and professor with an opportunity to collect, analyze and interpret data related to two issues in parenting: (1) common wisdom about the "bottom line" in parenting (the "how to" of raising children) and (2) parents' hopes about what traits their children will possess as adults (the goal of raising children).

The activity draws from two strains of research on parenting. The first asks parents the following question: "Based upon your personal experiences with your own children, what is the best advice you could give new parents about raising children?"

(Schaefer, 1978). The second asks parents to list the three character traits they emphasize most when rearing their children (Lynd & Lynd, 1929; Alwin, 1988). The first strain can be said to focus upon "means"; the second, upon "ends."

PROCEDURE

Parent Interviews

Students are instructed to interview two different sets of parents. The interviewees may be friends, siblings, or acquaintances (using one's own parents is discouraged). While the format of the interview requires only about 15-20 minutes, some parents carry the discussion much further. Students are provided with work sheets which allow them to record parents' responses as well as to jot down information such as parents' ages, occupations, number and ages of their children, etc. (see Appendix 1). After some preliminary data concerning occupation, age, family size, etc. are gathered, parents are asked the following questions:

(1) based on your personal experiences with your own children, what is the best advice (in the form of three commandments) that you could give new parents about raising children?

(2) What three traits or characteristics do you emphasize most when raising your children; that is, what three traits or characteristics do you consider most important for them to possess as adults?

Once interviewees have responded to the above-mentioned open-ended questions, they are given two checklists (see Appendix 2). The first includes ten "commandments" or recommendations for effective parenting based upon the comments of 50 parenting couples whose children had become successful adults (Schaefer, 1978). The second is a list of 16 items adapted from an instrument developed by Lynd & Lynd (1929). Depending on the instructor's purposes, preparatory readings and reaction papers may be added to the assignment (I usually assign the Baumrind, Kagan and Alwin articles listed at the end of this paper).

Class Discussion

Introductory Remarks. On the day the assignments are due, I usually build up a little "discussion momentum" by reviewing very briefly the concept of socialization: i.e., defining socialization in terms of agents (who does it?), methods (e.g., reinforcement, modelling, warmth and control dimensions, etc.), and goals (e.g., independence, responsibility, persistence).

General Reactions. The discussion opens with student reactions to the interviews. Were there any problems, interesting comments, or insights which struck them during the interview itself? Students frequently point out a number of potential shortcomings of the interview method: during the most recent version of this activity, points made by students included the following:

(1) Respondents may have interpreted questions or instructions differently; for example, "most important values" may have really simply been "most salient concerns at present", etc.

(2) A number of respondents were visibly annoyed at having to choose only three options from lists of items which, in their minds, were all important.

(3) While the vast majority of respondents took the interviews very seriously and engaged in lengthy discussions concerning their ideas about parenting, a small handful of respondents were "silly" or seemed to take the matter very lightly.

(4) Most students knew the parents they were interviewing; in some cases, students pointed to discrepancies between what parents said and what (in the students' perceptions) they actually did with regard to parenting practices.

Here, the point can easily be made that "research on parenting" must be scrutinized from a methodological standpoint, since the "facts" arrived at may be very much colored by the conditions under which they were obtained.

Open-ended Questions. A discussion of parents' responses to open-ended questions provides an opportunity to address a wealth of different issues related to parenting. Some of the responses given to each of the two open-ended questions are listed below:

Commandments for Parenting:

The mother should stay at home.
Have a sense of humor.
Stress religious training.
Set a good example for your children.
Spend time with your children.
Don't sweat the small stuff.
Keep lines of communication open.
Change yourself, as your children change.
Spend time away from your kids.
Be always forgiving.

Traits for Successful Adults:

having a college education
generosity
self-confidence
strong sense of family
outgoingness / gregariousness
kindness / compassion
being happy
willingness to take risks
assertiveness
willingness to take risks

As responses are offered, other students contribute by indicating whether their respondents gave similar or related answers, by evaluating the wisdom of those responses, and by considering the parents' motives for giving such answers. Most students have strong feelings about such issues as permissiveness, punishment, superbabies, etc.

Checklists. Finally, checklist totals are tallied in class (if there is limited time, only "most valued" are recorded). Table 1 presents findings from the most recent version of this activity. Note that the two most frequently chosen "commandments" correspond roughly to the warmth and control dimensions discussed in effective parenting literature. Students reported that parents remarked on the considerable overlap among some of the commandments; for example, spending time, really listening, and developing mutual respect may be different facets of the "love abundantly" commandment. The instructor may want to develop a new list of more "orthogonal" commandments or else to collapse some of the categories during class discussion. Collapsing categories might be accomplished using Kagan's (1976) four "psychological requirements for human development."

The totals from the second checklist can be compared to results from previous studies to determine whether parental values have changed over the years (see Table 2). A number of issues can be addressed here. One of the most salient is an apparent shift of emphasis from "heteronomy values" (obedience, good manners, loyalty to church) to "autonomy values" (independence, thinking for self). Alwin (1988) reviews 60 years of studies which indicate such a trend. Another key issue is a recent trend toward "interdependence" or community. Kagan (1976) characterizes America's ego ideal as consisting of too much self-interest, competitiveness, and narcissism on the one hand and too little intimacy, cooperation and altruism on the other. Peck (1987) and Bellah (1985) voice similar concerns. As other peculiarities appear with each new occurrence of the activity (see, for example, the high percentages for honesty and hard work in Table 2), students can be challenged to come up with possible reasons for such findings.

Several interesting variations of this basic recipe come to mind. Students can be instructed ahead of time to interview one younger parent and one older parent, or two parents who differ with respect to social class or religious affiliation. If the class is large enough, parents' responses can be grouped and compared for differences in values based on social class (Kohn, 1959), religious affiliation (Alwin, 1986), or family life cycle. Generally, I find that a simple tabulation sparks more than enough discussion to cover the critical issues of parenting.

ASSESSMENT

Students have responded very enthusiastically to this activity. Undergraduate students have rated it very positively (75% very worthwhile; 17% worthwhile); 83% agreed or strongly agreed that it should be included in future courses; 100% felt that the instructions were clear and that the activity was easy to complete. While graduate students in a life-span development class were less enthusiastic (70% felt that it should be included in future courses, while 25% remained neutral), my subjective impressions of their reactions during class discussion were very heartening.

This activity provides an opportunity to wrestle with parenting issues and to reflect upon and modify one's own theories about parenting. It also provides an excellent backdrop for working through the critical principles in parenting in a very comprehensive fashion without resorting to a traditional lecture modality.

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APPENDIX 1

PARENT INTERVIEW WORKSHEET

parent(s) interviewed (circle one): mother father both

mother's approximate age: 20's 30's 40's 50's

mother's current occupation: ________________________

father's approximate age: 20's 30's 40's 50's

father's current occupation: _________________________

children's genders & ages:

Based on your personal experiences with your own children, what is the best advice (in the form of three commandments) that you could give new parents about raising children?

(1)____

(2)____

(3)____

What three traits or characteristics do you emphasize most when raising your children; i.e., what three traits do you consider most important for them to possess as adults?

(1)____

(2)____

(3)____

Interviewer's Comments:

APPENDIX 2

CHECKLIST #1: TEN BASIC STRATEGIES IN REARING CHILDREN

All of the principles are considered important in parenting. AFTER READING THROUGH THE ENTIRE LIST, please place checks alongside those three which YOU consider to be MOST IMPORTANT.

___ LOVE ABUNDANTLY - Provide a sense of security, belonging, and support; express your love and affection.

___ DISCIPLINE CONSTRUCTIVELY - give clear directions; set limits and be firm and consistent (yet flexible) in enforcing them.

___ SPEND TIME TOGETHER WITH CHILDREN - everyday, spend time playing, talking together, teaching.

___ TEND TO PERSONAL / MARITAL NEEDS - give your marriage first priority; keep your spouse happy.

___ TEACH RIGHT FROM WRONG - actively teach children values and manners (kindness, respect, honesty, responsibility)

___ DEVELOP MUTUAL RESPECT - insist that all family members treat one another with respect (being polite, apoligizing, etc.)

___ REALLY LISTEN - put aside your own thoughts and try to understand your child's point of view; listen to the child as a person.

___ OFFER GUIDANCE - don't force opinions as laws, but offer your sollutions when they discuss difficulties with you.

___ FOSTER INDEPENDENCE - gradually allow children more and more freedom or control over their own lives.

___ BE REALISTIC - develop realistic expectations; don't expect things to go well all the time. Expect to make mistakes; realize that other influences will increase as your children grow.

****

INTERVIEWER'S COMMENTS:

CHECKLIST #2: TRAITS OF GREATEST IMPORTANCE TO PAARENTS

Below is a list of traits which parents might consider to be of importance when rearing their children. AFTER READING THROUGH THE LIST, please checks alongside the THREE which you consider to be MOST important; then draw lines through the three which you consider to be LEAST important.

___ FRANKNESS/HONESTY IN DEALING WITH OTHERS

___ DESIRE TO MAKE A NAME FOR ONESELF

___ CONCENTRATION

___ SOCIAL MINDEDNESS (CONCERN FOR OTHERS)

___ STRICT OBEDIENCE TO AUTHORITY

___ APPRECIATION OF ART, MUSIC, LITERATURE

___ ECONOMY IN MONEY MATTERS (FINANCIAL GOOD SENSE)

___ LOYALTY TO THE CHURCH

___ KNOWLEDGE OF SEX HYGIENE

___ TOLERANCE OF OTHERS

___ CURIOSSITY

___ PATRIOTISM

___ GOOD MANNERS

___ INDEPENDENCE

___ ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

___ WILLINGNESS TO WORK HARD

****

INTERVIEWER'S COMMENTS:

The Special Friends Program:
A Developmental Psychology Practicum

Gregory J. Smith
Dickinson College

Paper presented at *The 3rd Annual Conference on Undergraduate Teaching of Psychology: Ideas and Innovations*. Philadelphia, PA. March 9-11, 1989.

The Special Friends Program:
A Developmental Psychology Practicum

The present paper is a report on a practicum in child development, called the "special friends program", conducted in conjunction with the developmental psychology course at Dickinson College. The special friends program is a child development practicum designed to expose students to a diverse sample of children and give them an opportunity to work in depth with a single child. The intent is that this exposure will compliment the academic component of the course and aid in the mastery, comprehension, and application of material presented in class and in the text. Discussed are the general nature of the course, the setting for the practicum, the types of children worked with, the actual program itself, a typical sequence of activities over the course of the 12-week practicum, the preparation each student receives prior to the practicum, the use of a teaching assistant in coordinating the practicum, the evaluation procedures used, the application process for students interested in registering for the practicum, and legal matters related to the practicum.

The Developmental Psychology Course

The special friends program is part of the developmental psychology course. This course is a small (25 students) lecture based course which follows a modified chronological approach to covering biological, cognitive, psychological, and social development from pre-conception through early adolescence, with a major focus on the preschool years. The practicum provides a nice compliment to the normal lecture and text based academic components of developmental psychology, allowing the students to "see" first hand many of the concepts discussed in the course. In addition, the practicum provides a setting that allows the students to test some of the findings reported in class and in their text (for example, various Piagetian concepts).

The Setting

The setting for the practicum is a local day care/preschool center, a facility serving 72 children in four multi-age classrooms. The children at the center come from a wide range of economic and ethnic backgrounds, and a variety of family situations. Exposure to this diversity appears to be one benefit of this program for a predominantly white, upper-middle class student population. The center is located only a few blocks from campus, providing easy access for students.

The Program

The special friends program derives its name from the term applied to both children and students in the program. Each student in the program is assigned one child to work with for the semester. They call this child their special friend and the child also refers to the student as his or her special friend. The children are chosen by the center teachers for a variety of reasons, for example a child may need help with social skills, kindergarten readiness skills, or simply may need a dependable adult in his or her life.

The students in the course work with their special friends twice a week, for between 30 minutes and one hour each visit. They are scheduled on a regular basis, either Monday and Wednesday, or Tuesday and Thursday, and either early morning or late afternoon. With four regularly scheduled time slots and four classrooms there is rarely ever more than two students in a classroom at a time.

A typical sequence of interaction during the 12-week practicum begins with an initial meeting between each student and his or her friend's teacher. During this meeting the students learn a little about their friends and why that child was chosen for inclusion in the program. The initial week of the program is simply a time for the "friends" to get acquainted. The students are encouraged to bring some fun games to play with, to go outside and play together on the playground if possible, and to engage in other friendship building activities. A couple of sessions in which the main activities are things like swinging together or giving wagon rides seems to develop friendships quickly and breaks down most barriers that may exist. During the second week the students are directed to try and diagnose the underlying problems that may have lead to the child's inclusion in the program. Week three is used for developing short- and long-range plans to help the child. The next several weeks are a time in which the students carry out their plans, make modifications, and evaluate their progress. It is during this time that they also have a chance to test out material presented in class or in the text and to observe the other children in the classroom to note developmental differences. The final two weeks are a time to finish the work they have begun and to re-evaluate it in relationship to their original goals.

Preparation and Support

Prior to the beginning of the practicum each student receives a brief description of his or her new special friend and why that child was chosen to be in the program. The student then meets with the child's teacher to be further briefed regarding the child and to discuss preliminary goals for working with that child. At the end of that meeting, the teacher introduces the student to the child he or she will be working with. About halfway through the semester the student meets with the teacher again to discuss his or her progress and to reevaluate their goals. At the end of the semester the two meet again to summarize the semester's work. In addition to meeting with the child's teacher, the students have regular contact with the course's professor (who observes them three or four times during the semester) and a teaching assistant. In addition, twice during the semester class periods are set aside for discussions of the practicum. These discussions are designed around small groups of six or seven students. About four weeks after the start of the program the first discussion is held so that the students can share their ideas on goals and ways of achieving those goals. These groups also serve as ongoing support and advice groups throughout the semester. It is often the case that during the semester a student who heard of another student's goals and plans will find an activity that would be useful to the first student and share it with him or her. During the last week of the program the same discussion groups are reconvened. During this meeting the students have a chance to compare notes and to share the high and low points of their semester. During this final meeting the students also share specific examples of behaviors they have seen, characteristics they have noted, and comparisons they have made that highlight principles, findings, and facts that were presented either in the text or in class.

Use of a Teaching Assistant

A teaching assistant is used as a formal liaison with the center and as a regular observer of the students' performance. The teaching assistant is selected from students who have previously participated in the practicum. At a minimum, the TA observes each student eight times during the semester. The TA regularly meets with students to provide a critique of their work and suggestions for future work. The TA has regular discussions with the center's teachers about students' performance and meets with the professor of the course to discuss progress and problems.

At the beginning of the semester the TA is responsible for the logistical task of matching the students' abilities and interests with the needs of the children. During the semester the TA maintains a file of useful projects designed by students and makes this file available for student use. They also attempt to find books and articles that may be helpful for specific students to read to help prepare for working with their special friends, and activities that specific students can use with their special friends.

Resource Materials

During the semester the students in the course engage in a variety of activities and work on a variety of tasks with their special friends. These are often individually designed for the specific needs of the child. The TA for the course maintains a file of project descriptions which have been developed over the years by students in the course. The project descriptions include the project title, the name of the student who first developed the project, the major objectives, the skills involved, the materials needed, and a general description of the project. Appendix A includes copies of two sample projects.

An additional source available to the students is a book by Marzollo and Lloyd (1972) entitled Learning Through Play which is assigned as a required text in the course. This book provides descriptions of activities to be done with preschoolers broken down into 11 skill families: the five senses, language development, prereading, understanding relationships, sorting and classifying, counting and measuring, problem solving, exploring, creativity, self-esteem, and physical growth. The teachers at the center often recommend that the students in the practicum begin the semester by focusing on one of these skill families and working the various activities related to the skill family being focused on.

Evaluation Procedures Used

One-quarter of the course grade is based on the practicum. Part of this grade is based on a paper written about the practicum and part is based on evaluations of performance made by the center teachers and the course TA. The paper written about the practicum has two parts. The first part is intended to be a summary of what happened during the semester. Included in this are a description of the child, the original reasons the child was chosen for the program, the original goals, modifications of those goals, examples of activities completed to try and achieve the goals, and an assessment of the final outcome with recommendations for future directions for work with that child. The second part of the paper requires that the student integrate what they have seen at the center with the material in the text, providing specific accounts of examples of text (or class) based material which they have seen at the center.

The second means by which performance at the center is evaluated is by having both the teachers and the course TA complete an evaluation form (a copy is presented in Appendix B) rating each student on five criteria: reliability, creativity, goal directed behavior, rapport with the child, and rapport with the center staff. In addition, both the teachers and the TA are asked to provide additional free-response commentary about the students' performance. Besides being useful in evaluating each student for course grading purposes, these ratings and free-responses have been extremely helpful to me when asked to write letters of recommendation for my students. I can readily look back at these materials and incorporate both the ratings and direct quotes into letters of recommendation.

Legal Considerations

Because of recent legislation in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania designed to protect children in group care from abuse, students wishing to participate in the practicum must first apply for admission to the program and then undergo both health physicals and background checks. In Appendix C is presented a sample application packet handed out to interested students at preregistration time the semester prior to their participation in the program. The application packet consists of a description of the course and practicum, an application form which the student must complete, and two character reference forms to be completed by an adult who knows the student. Once admitted to the practicum, the student must also have his or her physician complete a Staff Health Appraisal Form (presented in Appendix D). The student must also obtain a Child Abuse History clearance from the Department of Public Welfare and have completed a Criminal History Record Information Check from the

Pennsylvania State Police (copies of application forms are presented in Appendix D). In addition, out-of-state residents must also obtain a Criminal History Check from the FBI.

As can be seen from the above, it is not easy for a student to enroll in the developmental psychology course and special friends practicum. The result is that those students that do enroll are typically good, hard working, highly motivated students who have a strong commitment to working with children.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the special friends program is a practicum for 25 students each semester. The practicum is part of a developmental psychology course and provides the students the opportunity to gain a first hand exposure to developing children, while, during the same semester, they receive an academic coverage of the field of developmental psychology and specifically child development. The intent of the practicum is that this exposure will compliment the academic component of the course and aid in the mastery and comprehension of material presented in class and in the text.

Reference

Marzollo, J. & Lloyd, J. (1972). Learning through play. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers.

Appendix A: Special Friends Project Forms

Developmental Psychology-237 Special Friends Projects

A. **Project Title**: 3-D model train

B. **Student's Name**: Jennifer Antrim

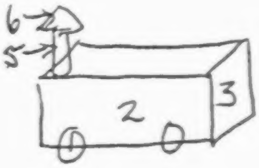
C. **Major Objectives**:
- -socialization skills
- -learning"how-to"
- -practice cutting
- -practice drawing shapes
- -practice tracing
- -practice taping

D. Skills Involved:
- -cutting
- -tracing
- -taping
- -drawing shapes

E. Materials Needed:
- -scissors
- -tape
- -colored construction paper

F. General Description:

1. Cut out an initial circle. Let your special friend trace and cut out 3 more circles. These become the 4 wheels
2. Cut out the initial rectangle. Let him trace and cut out another one. These become the sides of the train,
3. Cut out the initial square. Let him trace and cut out one more. These will become the ends of the train.
4. Tape the train together.
5. Cut out one more rectangle and rollit into a cylinder. Tape it closed and attach it to one end of the train.
6. Cut out one more circle, slit it in the center and curl it around the cylinder to make a smokestack.



A. Project Title: Santa Lollipops

B. Student Name: Rose Beliza

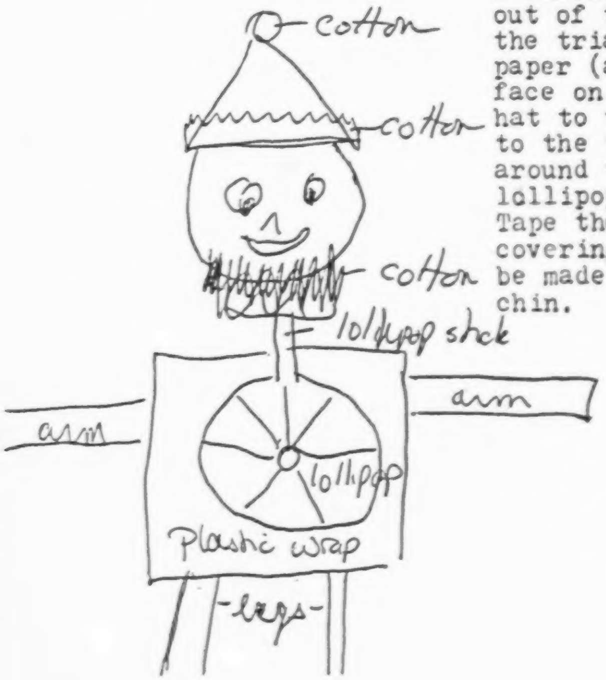
C. Major Objectives:
-to improve coloring
-to improve cutting
-to improve folding

D. Skills Involved

-coloring
-cutting
-folding
-taping

E. Materials Needed:
-white paper
-red and green crayons
-lollipops
-pen
-cotton balls
-tape
-scissors

F. General Description: Have your special friend cut a triangle, a circle, and 4 long pieces(about ½"x4") out of the white paper. Have him color the triangle (hat) and the pieces of paper (arms and legs). Have him draw a face on the circle. Help him tape the hat to the head and tape a cotton ball to the top of the hat, and tape cotton around the edge of the hat. Tape the lollipop stick to the back of the head. Tape the arms and legs to the plastic covering on the lollipop. A beard can be made by putting cotton balls on the chin.



Spring '86 teacher

SPECIAL FRIENDS EVALUATION

Please answer each question using the scale from 1 to 5;
1 = poor, 5 = excellent

1 **Reliability**: Did the student attend all the sessions? Was the student on time? If the student could not come, did the student make an attempt to notify the center?	2	4	5	5	5	3
Creativity: Did the student bring new ideas and projects or did he/she continually rely on the games at the center? (Did the student play Candyland all the time?)	2	3	5	5	5	4
Goals: Did the student make an attempt to meet the goals set up by the teacher or did the child "run" the sessions?	3	3	5	5	4	3
Rapport with the child: Did the student make an attempt to relate to the child on the child's level?	3	4	5	5	4	5
Rapport with the center staff: Was the student polite and cooperative with the staff?	3	5	4	5	5	5

Appendix C: Sample Application Packet

Dickinson College
Developmental Psychology Preregistration Materials

Professor: Dr. Gregory J. Smith
Course Time: 11::00 TH
Practicum Times: 8:00 to 9:00, or 3:30 to 4:30 on either MW or TH
Prerequisite: Psychology 111 or 131

Course Description

Developmental psychologists are interested in several areas of primarily human development including emotional , intellectual, perceptual, and physical development. Using carefully controlled research strategies, developmental psychologists attempt to determine the causes of and influences on these and other areas of development that occur across the life-span. The Developmental Psychology course here at Dickinson College focuses on human development as it progresses from preconception (genetic factors) through adolescence. Some of the topics we will cover are the development of attachment, cognition, intelligence, language, morality, and physical processes.

For most students, one highlight of this course is the practicum conducted at a local day care/preschool center. Shortly after the beginning of the semester you will be assigned a "special friend" at the center. Your friend will be selected because he or she has some special need. For example, they may need help with social skills, psychological problems, kindergarten skills, or some other area of functioning. During the semester you will be expected to meet with your special friend twice a week (each session will last for about one-half to one hour). Because of programming at the center, these sessions can only occur between 8:00 and 9:00 a.m. or 3:30 and 4:30 p.m. Most students have found the practicum to be a very rewarding experience, but I must warn you that it can also be hard, draining, and frustrating at times trying to help a young child. In addition the added time commitment of the practicum including both preparation time and actual practicum time is often a surprise to students. If you do not have the dedication to commit yourself to twice weekly visits, I urge you to consider taking a course other than Developmental Psychology.

Preregistration Procedures

If after reading the above description of this course you are still interested in preregistering, you must do the following:

1. Preregister for Developmental Psychology through the normal procedures.

2. Complete the attached Preregistration Application and return it to Mrs. Evans in Room 118 James Center no later than **September 13**.

3. Have two responsible adults complete the attached Character Reference Forms. Ask them to return the forms directly to Professor Smith no later than **September 13**.

4. If you are accepted into Developmental Psychology you will be contacted by Professor Smith. At that time you will be asked to have your family physician complete a Staff Health Appraisal Form. You will also be asked to obtain clearances to work with children from the Department of Public Welfare and the Pennsylvania State Police. If you are an out-of-state resident you will need to obtain an FBI clearance in addition to the previously mentioned materials.

Developmental Psychology
Registration Application

Because of the increasing concern for the emotional and physical welfare of preschool children in group care settings, the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania requires that certain information be on file with any agency utilizing volunteers in their program. Because the special friends program falls under the coverage of the legislation of this Commonwealth, all students registering for Developmental Psychology are requested to complete the following registration application and return it to Professor Gregory J. Smith, Box 151, no later than **September 13, 1986.**

1. Name: ______________________________ 2. Student ID: ______

3. Class: 1987 1988 1989 1990 (circle one)

4. Year of graduation from high school: ______

5. Date of Birth: __________ 6. Gender: FEMALE MALE

7. I am a:
   a. Psychology Major (this means you have declared)
   b. Intended Psychology Major
   c. Psychology Minor
   d. Other Major: ________________ (please specify)

8. My advisor is: ___________________________

9. Please check the appropriate box, list the professor with whom you took the course and fill in your final grade for each of the following courses:

Course	Have Taken	Currently Taking	Have Not Taken	Prof.	Grade
111 - Intro. Psych.					
131 - Sci. Found.					
220 - Exp. Anal.					
221 - Stat. Design					

10. Have you ever worked with children before? YES NO
    10a. If your answer was yes, in what capacity?

11. Have you ever been convicted of a misdemeanor or felony? YES NO

12. To the best of my knowledge, the above information is correct and true.
Signature: _________________________ Date: _______

Dickinson College/Carlisle Day Care Center
Practicum in Developmental Psychology
Character Reference Form

Student's Name: ______________________________

I hereby authorize _______________________ to complete this form.

Under the provisions of the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act of 1974, I do ___ do not ___ (check one) waive my rights of access to this recommendation and understand that the information provided will only be used for the purpose for which it was prepared.

Student's Signature: _________________________ Date: ________

The student named above has applied for participation in the Developmental Psychology practicum jointly administered by Dickinson College and the Carlisle Day Care Center. In this practicum the student will work closely with a preschool-age child under minimal supervision. Because of the increasing concern for the emotional and physical welfare of preschool children in group care settings, the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania requires that each student participating in the practicum submit a letter of reference attesting to their overall character, emotional stability, and maturity prior to being accepted into the practicum. Please complete the following recommendation and return it no later than **September 13**, directly to Professor Gregory J. Smith, Department of Psychology, Dickinson College, Carlisle, PA 17013.

1. How long and in what capacity have you known this student?

2. Please comment on this student's character, level of maturity, and emotional stability.

3. Are there any reasons (academic, personal, social, emotional) that cause you to have reservations about this student's participation in a practicum working with preschool children? (please elaborate)

4. Please use the back of this form to make any additional comments.

Signature: _________________________ Date: __________

Appendix D: Health Appraisal and Criminal Record Clearance Forms

STAFF HEALTH APPRAISAL

Child Day Care Centers - Group Day Care Homes - Family Day Care Homes

THIS SECTION TO BE COMPLETED BY THE EMPLOYE

AME AND ADDRESS OF INDIVIDUAL EXAMINED

AME OF EMPLOYER | EMPLOYER'S TELEPHONE NO.

APLOYER'S ADDRESS

JRPOSE OF EXAMINATION
Initial Employment
Annual Re-examination

TYPE OF ACTIVITY IN DAY CARE (Check all applicable)
☐ Caring for Children
☐ Food Preparation
☐ Desk Work
☐ Driver of Vehicle
☐ Facility Maintenance

THIS SECTION TO BE COMPLETED BY HEALTH PROFESSIONAL WHO DOES HEALTH APPRAISING

RT I – As shown by physical examination, does the individual have:	YES	NO
1. At least 20/40 combined vision, corrected by glasses, if needed?		
2. Normal hearing?		
3. Normal blood pressure?		
4. Normal cardiovascular system?		
5. Normal respiratory system?		
6. Normal skin?		
7. Normal neuro musculoskeletal systems?		
8. Normal endocrine system?		

(PLAIN ALL "NO" RESPONSES ON REVERSE OF FORM

RT II – Is the individual free from communicable tuberculosis as shown by:	YES	NO
9. Negative skin test results within the past two years?		
0. Positive skin test followed by one negative x-ray and an asymptomatic history at this health appraisal?		

(PLAIN ALL "NO" RESPONSES ON REVERSE OF FORM, GIVING PLAN FOR FOLLOW-UP

RT III – Does this individual have any of the following medical problems:	YES	NO
1. History of myocardial infarction, angina pectoris, coronary insufficiency?		
2. History of epilepsy?		
3. Diabetes?		
4. Thyroid or other metabolic disorders?		
5. Inadequate immune status (Td, measles, mumps, rubella)?		
6. Need for more frequent health visits or sick days than average for age?		
7. Current drug or alcohol dependency?		
8. Disabling emotional disorder?		
9. Other special medical problem or chronic disease which requires restriction of activity, medication or which might affect his/her work role? If so, specify on reverse of form.		

(PLAIN ALL "YES" RESPONSES ON REVERSE OF FORM, GIVING PLAN FOR FOLLOW-UP, IF ANY

0. Does this individual have any special medical problems which might interfere with the health of the children or which might prohibit the individual from providing adequate care for the children? If yes, explain on reverse of form.		

AME AND ADDRESS OF LICENSED PHYSICIAN | TELEPHONE NUMBER

GNATURE OF ABOVE PHYSICIAN | DATE OF EXAMINATION

CY 322 - 7-80

DPW USE
DATE RECEIVED BY CHILDLINE

APPLICATION FOR CHILD ABUSE HISTORY
(Pursuant to Child Care Employment)

INSTRUCTIONS: Complete Section I of the application. Enclose check or money order for $10.00 payable to Department of Public Welfare. Send to Department of Public Welfare, P.O. Box 8170, Harrisburg, PA 17105-8170.

Applications received without fee will not be processed.

No fee required for CWEP participants.

SECTION I - APPLICANT IDENTIFICATION

AME OF APPLICANT (Last, First, Middle)	AGE	SEX ☐ Male ☐ Female	SOCIAL SECURITY NO.

URRENT ADDRESS (Street, Apt., Box No., City, State, Zip Code)

THER NAMES USED BY APPLICANT SINCE 1975 (Last, First, Middle)

	2.	3.

HECK ONE BLOCK ONLY

☐ I am requesting a clearance for purposes of employment

☐ I am requesting a voluntary certification/biennial recertification and have enclosed copies of the Pennsylvania State Police and FBI (out-of-state applicants only) clearances

☐ I am a CWEP program participant	SIGNATURE OF CONFIRMING CAO OFFICIAL	DATE	TELEPHONE NO.

ORMER ADDRESSES OF APPLICANT SINCE 1975 (Street, Apt., Box No., City, State, Zip Code)

EMBERS OF APPLICANT'S HOUSEHOLD

NAME	RELATIONSHIP	SEX	AGE

certify that the above information is accurate.

APPLICANT SIGNATURE

DATE

ECTION II - RESULTS OF HISTORY CHECK

☐ Applicant is not listed in our files as a perpetrator of child abuse.

☐ Applicant is listed in our files as a perpetrator of child abuse.

EPORTS IDENTIFIED

	STATUS	DATE OF INCIDENT		STATUS	DATE OF INCIDENT
1			4		
2			5		
3			6		

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SIGNATURE OF VERIFIER

DATE

SIGNATURE-VERIFIERS SUPERVISOR

DATE

APPLICATION

CY 113 - 11/88

SP 4-164 (7-86)

FOR CENTRAL REPOSITORY USE ONLY
(LEAVE BLANK)

PENNSYLVANIA STATE POLICE

REQUEST FOR CRIMINAL HISTORY RECORD INFORMATION

(SEE REVERSE SIDE FOR INSTRUCTIONS)

TYPE OR PRINT ONLY

PART I TO BE COMPLETED BY REQUESTER

DATE OF REQUEST

NAME (Last) (First) (Middle)

MAIDEN NAME AND/OR ALIASES

SOCIAL SECURITY NO.

DATE OF BIRTH

SEX

RACE

REQUESTER IDENTIFICATION

☐ CRIMINAL JUSTICE AGENCY - FEE EXEMPT

☐ NONCRIMINAL JUSTICE AGENCY - FEE EXEMPT

☐ INDIVIDUAL - NONCRIMINAL JUSTICE AGENCY - $10 FEE ENCLOSED

REASON FOR REQUEST

☐ CRIMINAL INVESTIGATION

☐ INDIVIDUAL ACCESS AND REVIEW BY SUBJECT OF RECORD OR LEGAL REPRESENTATIVE

☐ CRIMINAL JUSTICE EMPLOYMENT

☐ NONCRIMINAL JUSTICE EMPLOYMENT

☐ COURT REQUEST ON PRIOR ARD

☐ OTHER (Specify) ______________________________

PART II TO BE COMPLETED BY CRIMINAL JUSTICE AGENCIES ONLY

INFORMATION REQUESTED

☐ RAP SHEET

☐ PHOTO

☐ FINGERPRINTS

☐ PRIOR ARD

STD NO. (If available)

OTN OR OCA NO. (If available)

PART III FOR CENTRAL REPOSITORY USE ONLY (LEAVE BLANK)

INFORMATION DISSEMINATED

☐ NO RECORD OR NO RECORD THAT MEETS DISSEMINATION CRITERIA

☐ RAP SHEET ☐ FINGERPRINTS ☐ PHOTO

SID NO.

INQUIRY BY

DISSEMINATION BY

THE INFORMATION FURNISHED BY THE CENTRAL REPOSITORY IS SOLELY BASED ON THE FOLLOWING IDENTIFIERS THAT MATCH THOSE FURNISHED BY THE REQUESTER:

☐ SID NO. ☐ DATE OF BIRTH ☐ RACE

☐ OTN/OCA NO. ☐ MAIDEN NAME ☐ SEX

☐ NAME ☐ SOCIAL SECURITY NO. ☐ ALIAS

Director, Central Repository

Response based on comparison of requester furnished information and/or fingerprints against a name index and/or fingerprints contained in the files of the Pennsylvania State Police Central Repository only, and does not preclude the existence of other criminal records which may be contained in the repositories of other local, state or federal criminal justice agencies.

PART IV TO BE COMPLETED BY REQUESTER

NAME OF INDIVIDUAL
MAKING REQUEST ______________________________

REQUEST TO BE MAILED TO:

NAME

ADDRESS

CITY STATE ZIP CODE

LIST TELEPHONE NO. TO BE USED IN CASE OF PROBLEM.

INCLUDE AREA CODE

AN INTRODUCTORY PSYCHOLOGY LABORATORY DESIGNED AND TAUGHT BY UNDERGRADUATE TEACHING INTERNS

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Presented at the
Conference on Teaching of Psychology:
Ideas and Innovations
Philadelphia, PA
March 11, 1989

Introductory Psychology at St. John's University/College of St. Benedict has had a laboratory component for six years. The basic goal of our Introductory Psychology lab is to provide an opportunity for experiential learning for both our beginning students and our advanced students. The beginning students learn by doing: they conduct and analyze experiments, discuss pivotal topics in psychology, and do a considerable amount of writing (ten written assignments a semester). The labs meet for 70 minutes once a week and are in addition to the three normal lecture sessions per week. The experiential learning of the advanced students is primarily accomplished through the preparation for and actual teaching of their labs. Research on cognitive development has demonstrated that teaching is one of the best, if not the best, ways of learning material in depth. Our experience over the last six years with over 100 Teaching Interns has confirmed this even more strongly than we had hoped would be the case.

The specific labs have changed over the years. Initially, the labs were primarily discussions of what we considered to be key controversies in psychology. Over time, labs have evolved primarily into sessions during which the students actually conduct and analyze experiments. The experiment then sets the stage for a discussion of a particular issue. The basic goals and formats of the labs have remained as they were in the beginning, but we have tended to concentrate more on an empirical approach to psychology as the central way for students to learn about the discipline.

There are at least three components of our program that we consider crucial to its success:

1. The educational value of the Teaching Intern's work is emphasized. They attend a two hour weekly seminar on teaching and discussion techniques. They read and discuss books and articles on pedogogical techniques, and role play discussions before they go into their labs. They are videotaped twice during the semester, and the Internship/Lab director reviews each taping with the students individually. Since they are teaching as the capstone experience of their major rather than for work-study wages, Interns take their work very seriously.

2. The Teaching Interns are more responsible for the content of the labs than is generally the case. Our Teaching Interns must decide what content is going to be presented in the labs and how best to present it. After the team of 2-4 students working on a particular lab has decided what to do, they are responsible for presenting it to the other Teaching Interns during the weekly teaching seminar. We consider this a crucial component of the program, since teaching is more than just delivering a predetermined curriculum; it is deciding what is important for students to know and then effectively conveying it.

3. The Teaching Interns are involved in the lecture sections. They sit in on the lectures (an excellent review for the GRE and graduate school) and help create and grade exams and projects. This work makes sense given the internship nature of the program– we want to acquaint our Teaching Interns with all components of teaching, including the less glamorous jobs like grading.

Summary of Teaching Intern Activities

LAB

1. Each week:
   (a) Attend a 1-2 hour teaching seminar on teaching skills and prepare for the next week's lab.

   Teaching Skills

   i. Read and think about teaching skills from sources such as *Teaching of Psychology*, Bill McKeachie's *Teaching Tips*, and Hall's *Learning Through Discussion.*
   ii. Read and discuss "Tips for Better Teaching" handouts prepared by Lab Director.
   iii. Discuss and share teaching problems and solutions recorded in daily journals.

   Preparation for Lab

   i. Complete that week's pre-lab assignment: Do required readings, write out answers to questions, etc. Purpose: to familiarize TIs with their students' pre-lab experience.
   ii. Use the Teaching Intern Lab Agenda published week-ly as a basis for structuring lab time.
   iii. Read and think about the "Instructions for Teaching Interns" which describes procedures for completing in-lab experiments and demos.
   iv. Read any additional readings in the Teaching Intern handbook.
   v. Additional structure for conducting the lab, evaluating the written pre-lab assignments, etc., is provided at the weekly teaching seminar.

   (b) Teach two 70-minute labs.
   (c) Evaluate students' written pre-lab assignments and in-lab discussion: Read, analyze, and comment on and grade the previous week's written pre-labs (students in intro labs must write out answers to pre-lab assignments prior to attending each lab); provide written evaluation of students' discussion participation.

   To facilitate the Teaching Intern's work and to assure "quality control" beyond that provided by the weekly meetings:

   i. Teaching Interns exchange their students' pre-lab answers, evaluate each others' work.
   ii. Lab director reviews Teaching Interns performance on evaluating pre-lab assignments, discusses how to evaluate student work with Teaching Intern.

2. Twice a semester:

    (a) Each Teaching Intern has responsibility, working with 2-3 other Teaching Interns, to prepare and present that week's topic (e.g., Perception, Conditioning, Personality, etc.) to other TIs at a weekly teaching seminar. Materials developed include the pre-lab, lab agenda, background readings for TIs, instructions to TIs, etc. In developing a lab, each TI:

        i. Meets three times with co-developers and Lab director.
        ii. Reviews what has been done in preceding semesters; restructures previous lab or develops a new one.
        iii. Prepares lab materials.
        iv. Presents material to the other Teaching Interns during the teaching seminar.

LECTURE

1. In addition to lab responsibilities, each Teaching Intern is assigned to a professor's lecture section

2. Each week each TI:

    (a) Attends the professor's lecture as required.
    (b) Takes notes in preparation for making up exams.
    Plus,
    (c) Helps make and grade exams.*
    (d) Tutors students who need extra help.
    (e) Leads small-group discussion if necessary.*
    (f) Gives guest lectures, fills in if prof must miss class.*

*conducted under close supervision of individual lecture professors.

EVALUATION

1. Teaching Interns are evaluated twice during the semester by lab students.

2. Teaching Interns are videotaped twice during semester; tapes are reviewed with each Intern by the Lab Director.

3. Teaching Interns are "debriefed" by the Lab Director at mid-term and at the end of the semester.

4. Lecture profs provide written evaluation.

ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE FOR
JUNIOR COLLEGES

DEC 22 1989